

TOGOLAND

ALBERT F. CALVERT

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TOGOLAND



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TOGOLAND

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PREFACE.

ONE of the most curious and interesting features connected with the annexation of Togoland by Germany, the colonisation of the territory by its Teuton administrators, and its final surrender to the allied British and French forces, is the quietness and decorum that has characterised every incident and phase of the several processes. In July, 1884, a German Consul-General, named Nachtigal, ostensibly engaged in the capacity of Trade Commissioner to report to his Government upon the progress of German commerce in West Africa, unostentatiously unfurled the flag of the Fatherland in Bagida and Lome, and added an area of 33,700 square miles of Togoland to the 322,450 square miles of country in Damaraland and Namaqualand, which at that period constituted the extent of Germany's African Empire. This totally unexpected act of acquisition was accomplished without fuss, and the fact was accepted by Downing Street and the Quai D'Orsay almost without protest. It is true that in the process of opening up the country slavery, if not abolished, was replaced by

a system of compulsory native labour which was bitterly resented by the Togoland, and it was necessary for their new masters to teach the people several sharp lessons before they became reconciled to German domination. But the work of pacification was carried on so quietly that the outside world never troubled itself to enquire when or how it was accomplished. Thereafter, and with the same absence of pother or publicity, railways were built, excellent roads and resthouses were constructed, towns and markets were founded, postal facilities were extended, and at Kamina, to the north of Atakpame, a wireless station was installed of sufficient power to communicate with Berlin and the administrative centres in the German West, South-West and East African possessions. The agricultural and commercial progress achieved rendered Togoland financially independent of the Fatherland, and the little wedge of territory on the Gulf of Guinea was long regarded with peculiar pride and satisfaction by the Imperial Colonial Office, as constituting a practical proof of the conspicuous success of the German system of colonisation. And the passing of Teutonic rule in the model colony was attended with as little commotion as its advent and its application. The Protec-

torate was surrendered practically without a struggle, and the majority of the people of this country, who read in their newspapers in September, 1914, that the disintegration of the German Colonial Empire had been begun with the capitulation of Togoland to the Allied forces, would have been hard put to it to recall the name of the country or point to its location on a map of the world.

Neither the duplicity by which Germany intrigued herself into East Africa, nor the bluff she practised in the acquisition of her south-west territory, nor the bullying swagger she exhibited in filching the Province of New Cameroon from the French in the face of Europe, were employed in the business of her annexation of Togoland. It was a simple matter of appropriation, and the simplicity of Germany's subsequent methods of dealing with the natives is even now only beginning to be understood. The country was smiling and prosperous, the Togolanderns were peaceful and thrifty, the material progress of the colony was unique in Germany's colonial experience, and everything was for the best in the best of all possible German-African worlds. The natives were instructed in agricultural cultivation, an Agricultural College was established, special experiments were made in the

raising of indigenous products, and excellent results were obtained. Vaccination was introduced, and the scourge of small-pox was arrested. A system of native education was instituted by the Government by which the little Togolandese were instructed in the German language, and the history of the German Empire and the lives of its Emperors since 1870. The geography of Germany also formed a subject of juvenile native study, while the singing of German patriotic songs had an honoured place in the curriculum. The agricultural and educational systems were triumphs of organisation, and the results surpassed expectation ; yet we have the testimony of both a German and an English authoress that the German methods had their defects, and that the people were " not so light-heartedly happy as in English territory." It seems strange, perhaps, that after thirty years of a rule which was best calculated, in the eyes of the German authorities, to benefit the natives in mind, body and estate, the ungrateful Togolandese should have acclaimed the Anglo-French troops not as invaders but deliverers, and have welcomed their triumphant entry into Lome with every demonstration of enthusiastic joy—" for days on end, in fullest gala attire, the population paraded the streets, singing

and chanting songs of praise and thankfulness." A curiously significant ending to three decades of peaceful occupation and unprecedented progress in colonisation !

Yet the reason of the natives' insensibility to the benefits conferred upon them by their German protectors is not far to seek. "The terrible doings of Germans in Togoland," we read in the *Gold Coast Leader*, "have become matters of common knowledge." Such knowledge may have been common enough in the Gold Coast region, but the German administrators took care that particulars of their terrible doings did not obtain any wider publicity. The native revolts against forced labour in the neighbouring Cameroons were so frequent, and the punishment inflicted by the authorities was so severe, that it was impossible altogether to disguise the condition of affairs that existed in that colony. In East Africa German maladministration was followed by expedition after expedition, and by the wholesale massacre of the disaffected natives, while in South-West Africa, as Professor Bonn, of Munich University, declared in January, 1914, the Germans "solved the native problem by smashing tribal life and creating a scarcity of labour." These were facts that could not be

hidden, but no such unrest was reported in Togoland, and no resultant scandal was raised over the means employed by the authorities in its suppression. None the less, the Togolander was anything but grateful for German civilisation or the German manner of inculcating it. He did not appreciate at its full value the installation of a perfect telephone system, and he was not pleasurably impressed by the fact that his children had the choice of 324 schools and the service of forty-nine European teachers at their disposal. On the other hand, he was signally alive to the injustice of a law which permitted his German benefactor to give him twenty-five strokes with the lash, and was probably cognisant of the fact that under British rule the white man who strikes a black is mulcted in a fine of £5. The construction of 755 miles of roads was a *tour de force* upon which the Germans prided themselves inordinately, but the native was not forgetful of the terms and conditions on which he was compelled to build the roads and keep them in a state of repair. For all the benefits conferred upon the native by a paternal Government, he was charged a head-tax of only six shillings per annum, and as he did not possess that insignificant sum, the Government allowed him to

make his contribution in the form of forced labour to the extent of twelve working days. This again, on the face of it, appears anything but severe, but when he had to report for duty at long distances from his home, and to provide food for himself and the family which invariably accompanied him on his journeys, the hardship and privation inflicted under this system becomes apparent. Moreover the Government officials were untiring in their inspection of the native quarters, consideration for the comfort of the native and his family being combined with an almost preternatural sensitiveness on the subject of the presence of any kind of dirt, which was punishable with a fine of twenty shillings or an additional forty days' labour on those excellent roads.

Even if it is admitted that the system is admirable and the manner in which it is administered is perfect in its thoroughness, the fact remains that it is unsuited to the native temperament, and it is in the German determination to ignore that fact that their failure to colonise in Africa is to be found. The German authorities have no use for the native while he remains a Togolander ; the whole aim of their system is to make him into a German as soon as the transformation can be effected. His history,

traditions, virtues, and methods of work must be obliterated from his memory, and in their place German standards and ideals set up. Instead of adapting German improvements to native systems, the native is compelled to adopt German civilisation in its entirety, and adapt himself to it as best he may, with the result that after thirty years' experience of the blessings of *kultur* he divests himself of the accursed thing in an hour and joyously hails the arrival of enemy troops as presaging a return to freedom. The organising ability the German throws into his mission of educating the native and teaching him the German language and the advantages of being a German subject, is beyond praise, but it is accompanied with "little love and scarcely any respect for the native," and "no mention is ever made of the natives' national feeling." Germany's obligation to the native is discharged by the erection of an Agricultural College, the introduction of forced labour, and the infliction, at discretion, of twenty-five lashes.

Indeed it would seem as if the lamentable failure of German methods and German intellectualism, is more clearly demonstrable in her fast-disappearing African possessions than in the Fatherland itself. Jealousy of Great Britain, an arrogant, ignorant

assumption of a racial monopoly of intellect, virtue and colonising genius, misled her into the acceptance of Bernhardt's contention that "The German nation, from the standpoint of its importance to civilisation, is entitled to demand not only a place in the sun, but to aspire to an adequate share in the sovereignty of the world far beyond the limits of its present sphere of influence." Unfortunately for Germany, when she arrived at this conclusion, all the outlying regions of the globe that were not actually the recognised possession of another European nation, came within the sphere of influence of one or other of those several Powers. Thus while Britain had been supreme in the Zanzibari region of East Africa since 1841, and her authority was unchallenged in the provinces of Damaraland and Namaqualand, nothing but the supineness of Downing Street and the anti-Imperial spirit which animated the Gladstone administration of 1883, prevented the British Government from acceding to the repeated petitions of the native chiefs of the Cameroons and Togoland, and taking those territories under the protection of the English flag. This apathy of the administration of the period lent itself to the cunning designs of Prince Bismarck and gave him the opportunity he required. German

traders were despatched to negotiate with local chiefs for tracts of territory and trading rights in South-West Africa, Togoland and the Cameroons, and Dr. Carl Peters, a commercial adventurer of undisputed ability and initiative, was allowed, if not actually authorised, by the Chancellor to obtain concessions in the district of Zanzibar. The establishment of German traders in these several quarters, afforded the German Government ample excuse for taking formal measures for the protection of their lives and interests. A gunboat was sent to South-West Africa to safeguard the rights and property of Franz Adolf Luderitz, the merchant emissary, who had acquired an extensive settlement at Luderitzbucht in exchange for a score of old muskets and a cash payment of £85, and Bismarck, who had disavowed in 1883 any intention of establishing a Crown Colony in South-West Africa, announced in April, 1884, that the settlement of Luderitzbucht was under the protection of the Empire. Thereafter Germany's newly-disclosed policy of territory-grabbing was pursued with vigour. The English Colonial Office had scarcely recovered from the effect of this first staggerer, when staggerers two, three and four were delivered in quick succession. In July the German flag was hoisted in Togoland and

the Cameroons, and before the end of the year Dr. Peters, by virtue of twelve treaties, had acquired in East Africa a province as large as Southern Germany. Although this colony was not declared to be a Protectorate of the Empire until 1888, it is evident, in the light of subsequent events, that Peters had been employed as a tool by Bismarck for the furtherance of his scheme of colonisation; and the brutal callousness with which the Imperial Chancellor threw him over when his services were no longer of use to him, was entirely characteristic of the man of blood and iron. German East Africa was an accomplished if unannounced fact before the close of 1884, and in the last nine months of that year Germany had bluffed, cajoled or tricked Great Britain into acknowledging her sovereignty over 100,000,000 square miles of Africa and a native population of nearly 14,000,000 souls. When war was declared, in August, 1914, Germanic Africa had a white population of only 16,500 persons, but she had sunk about £100,000,000 in developing her territories and in raising their exports to over four millions sterling.

Although the tremendous energy and assurance displayed by Germany in securing for herself a place in the African sun caused the British Government

considerable perturbation at the time, and was keenly resented in South Africa, the nation entertained no serious ill-will against the intrusiveness of her new neighbour, and was soon watching her colonising difficulties with sympathetic interest. The British fleet co-operated with the German troops in enforcing the claims to the Zanzibari concessions granted to Dr. Peters under the treaties, and in the long war that the German South-West African forces waged against the Hereros, many South Africans crossed the border to give their neighbouring colonists a helping hand. But for the assistance of hundreds of British and Dutch Afrikanders, and the shooting of Marengo by Major Elliott, of the C.M.R., the Herero War would not have been settled even in the long space of four years. The British people were prepared to work harmoniously side by side with the German colonisers, and to share with them the benefit of their long experience—partly from the respect in which the might of Germany was held, partly from a feeling of genuine neighbourliness, and partly because they were only too willing to accept Lord Haldane's assurance that the Kaiser's life purpose was "to make the world better," and that Germany was "penetrating everywhere to the profit of mankind."

If the Kaiser could have fulfilled his high purpose without desiring to dominate the world he proposed to benefit, and if the German Colonial Office had accepted and condescended to profit by the friendly overtures made by British statesmen and governors, it is possible that in the course of a century or two the German African possessions might have been transformed into a contented and creditable colonial empire. But the Prussian overlords of united Germany cherished two fatal delusions. The one was that the loyalty of Greater Britain to the homeland was on the wane ; the second that Germany "had nothing to learn from England or any other colonising nation, having a method of handling social problems peculiar to the German spirit." Professor Cramb, in his lectures on "Germany and England," assured his countrymen that our failure to govern India was conspicuous, ignoble and complete, that our failure to hold Egypt was inevitable and that our dominions were shivering with impatience under the last slight remnants of the English yoke. And since this professorial oracle had no difficulty in convincing his countrymen that the British conception of colonisation was utterly wrong and the German system was entirely right, they realised how

completely justified Treitschke was in recommending the destruction of the British Empire, and the erection of Greater Germany upon the ruins.

In a word, Germany quite misunderstood the nature of our Colonial Empire and the imperishable loyalty of the Colonials to the race and land from which they sprang, and afterwards failed to grasp the first principle of successful colonisation, which is to keep the practical and sentimental bonds of allegiance between the Motherland and the dominions taut and true. Experience has proved to Britain, as Sir Francis Piggott has explained, that this can only be done "by fostering the spirit of independence, so that the colonies may be not mere off-shoots of the home country, but component parts of the Empire; that every colony should feel that it is a nation in embryo, capable if it will, or at least endeavouring, to attain to that capacity of declaring its independence, if the Mother Country neglect it or treat it improperly. Such success as we have attained is by the fearless recognition of this principle; and we foster it by self-reliance, by granting as much official and administrative independence as each is capable of exercising." If the German Government could not see the bond which held the Empire together and the

Empire to the Mother Country, it is not surprising that German administrators should fail to recognise the means by which the links were forged. Yet, as Sir Francis Piggott has pointed out, we have made no secret of our methods. "They were at liberty to inquire, they would have had most truthful answers; they were free to examine for themselves; more than that, the House of our Fathers has no door to keep open or shut, and they, as all others, might walk in and, taking up their habitation, test our theories on the spot, observing our methods and drawing their own conclusions. How freely the Kaiser's subjects availed themselves of this liberty, how we welcomed them, even though it became sometimes our own hindrance, how we made both hearth-room and heart-room for them, they seem somewhat to have forgotten. Yet in spite of it all they have misunderstood what was so very plain, and the hopelessness of the blunder which has resulted from the misunderstanding, has been ruthlessly demonstrated by the hard facts as the world knows them to-day."

After thirty years of rule in Africa, Professor Bonn was compelled to the conclusion that the Germans were only just beginning to understand native administration. From the first Germany stood for military

and scientific methods of colonisation. As Dr. W. Kulz admitted in *Deutsch Sud-Afrika in 25 Jahre* (1909), "The greater part of the work done in the first twenty-five years of German rule in South Africa has been accomplished by German troops. The colony in its present form, and in its possible future development as a German country, would be an impossibility without the fights and successes of the German soldier. In the past, as well as in the future, there are other factors in the forefront of German dominion in addition to the soldier; but for the first twenty-five years he holds first place." Crush the natives into submission to superior force, and afterwards insist upon the advantages which are multiplied to them by the process! It is a simple method of conducting colonial expansion, but, as the *Times* has maintained, these attempts to apply it have proved a lamentable failure "because they violate deep-seated principles, while the German claim to a superior moral right to rule on the ground of superior strength is based on a superficial and fallacious conception of the nature of strength and weakness in world-politics. . . . The Germans will learn through bitter disillusionment that their teachers are wrong, and that our apparently weak

rule conceals a virility equal to their own, and more stable because rooted in liberty. South Africa presents this lesson in the most direct and convincing form, because there the Boers, converted by British rule to be its enthusiastic supporters, are defending it against the Germans, to whom they looked as Saviours before they knew what British rule was like. Their choice is as deliberate as it is decided, and no German thinker can honestly misread the lesson it contains or ignore the contrast it offers to Alsace-Lorraine under German rule."

In some directions, as in the construction of towns and harbours, in the building of railways and roads, in the establishment of posts and telegraphs, the founding of agricultural colleges and stations and the experimental work in connection with plantation and native cultivation, Germany accomplished valuable work in her African colonies, but with true German arrogance she applied fixed rules to flexible colonial problems, and such success as she has had, as Mr. Evans Lewin declares, "has been neutralised by certain things that have tended to throw ridicule upon the efforts of her scientists and social reformers to impose, by the aid of the military caste, rigid rules and inflexible regulations upon the natives. The

complex military and administrative machinery of the Fatherland has been little suited to the soil of Africa, and the scientific methods of dragooning the natives into a dull comprehension of the meaning of German *kultur* have cast discredit upon the excellent work that German administrators have performed in other directions. Germany had indeed much to learn from England, but she was too proud and too imbued with the consciousness of her own superior merit to stoop to Anglo-Saxon levels." The Hon. W. P. Schreiner contends, and the truth of his assertion is becoming more and more apparent as the facts of their administrative systems become better known, that Germany has never really colonised at all, either in Africa or anywhere else. In order to colonise it is necessary to possess some sort of perception of the rights of humanity, and Germany has invariably committed the fatal error of misjudging humanity altogether. She has refused to learn the lesson which must first be mastered before a nation can control and govern a subject race, and her consistent violation of treaties and her brutal treatment of natives, have made it for ever impossible, in the judgment of the High Commissioner for South Africa, for Germany

and Great Britain to march side by side in the work of colonisation in the Dark Continent.

The impossibility of the prospect is incontestable in the calculations of France as well as of Great Britain. The colonial possessions of both these countries and of Germany are among the pawns in the game which is now being played out across the length and breadth of Europe. South-West Africa and German East Africa are as much a part of the British Empire to-day as India or the Isle of Wight. In the Cameroons, that portion of the colonies which France was black-mailed into ceding to Germany will certainly be restored to her, and that her sphere of influence extends to the rest of the region, is undisputed. In the case of Togoland, the claims of the Allies are more equal. Both countries have adjacent colonies in French Dahomey and the British Gold Coast Colony, and their united forces effected the capitulation of the German Governor of Togoland. It is no part of my purpose in writing this little book to attempt to forecast the ultimate ownership of this wedge of tropical territory, although it is my hope that France—whose paramount interests are situated elsewhere—will raise no objection to our retaining possession of the Colony which she has helped us to

conquer. In that belief I have been at no small pains to collect all the available information about the Protectorate, and to endeavour, in the following pages, to present as completely and concisely as possible the material on which to base an estimate of the colonial and commercial value of this first-fruits of the war that Germany thrust upon the Allies. As in the cases of the other German colonies in Africa, English writers appear to have conspired to leave Togoland most severely alone, and the majority of the particulars collated here have been gleaned from German official and scientific publications. My intention will be realised if the British reader is enabled to form a general idea of the physical features of the ex-German Colony, to make himself acquainted with its resources of tropical products, to ascertain from the record of past endeavour what to adopt and what to avoid in the German system of agricultural exploitation, and to estimate for himself the potential worth of the territory as a British, French, or Anglo-French possession.

ALBERT F. CALVERT.

ROYSTON,

ETON AVENUE, N.W.

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TOGOLAND

GERMAN ACQUISITION AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT. I

ALTHOUGH the smallest of the territories which formed the German Colonial Empire in Africa, Togoland, with its area of 33,660 square miles, and its population estimated in 1913 at 1,030,000, was officially regarded as a model colony since it had been for many years financially independent of the Fatherland. In the thirty years that the country had been under German administration, a stable government had been established, the hinterland had been opened up, three railways and many excellent roads had been built, slavery had been abolished and inter-tribal warfare discouraged, and a number of experimental plantations had been formed. The Government, by its energetic policy, had developed the resources of the country, established trade and commerce on sound lines, and made considerable progress towards the betterment and prosperity of the people. The whole country has been described as a great storehouse, actual and

potential, for the supply of the most varied tropical products—including palm kernels and palm oil, cotton, cocoa, maize, groundnuts, cassada, coffee, rice, and rubber—but its material prosperity is only a small indication of the rewards which an enterprising and more sympathetic administration may expect to secure from its future development. Yet this compact little colony, wedged in between Dahomey on the east and the Gold Coast Colony on the west, was for many years the only unannexed region on the West African coast, partly one supposes on account of the difficulty of effecting a landing on the thirty-two miles of palm-fringed, surf-beaten sands which form its sea-border.

At any time during the last four and a half centuries Togoland might have been annexed by Portugal, France or England, but it was not until Germany set about her policy of colonial expansion that this strip of country was considered worthy of notice. As far back as 1471, the Portuguese had reached Upper Guinea, ten years later they built Fort Elmina, and in 1517 they had established a regular slave trade on the Gold Coast. When, in 1624, the Dutch elbowed the Portuguese out of this region, they had, as neighbours, the English and

the Danes. To the west of Togo, on the Point of Three Capes, Brandenburg constructed several forts between 1683 and 1707, while on the territory to the east, the first factories were instituted by the French, the English and the Dutch. The suppression of the slave trade in the Dutch territory in 1803, and in the English area four years later, caused these colonies to decline in importance, and between 1856 and 1871 both the Danes and the Dutch sold their possessions to the English. The French, in the meantime, had acquired Kotonu (1864) and Port Novo (1882), in Eastern Upper Guinea, but the natives of the inhospitable coast of Togoland remained in undisputed possession of their territory.

TRADE PRECEDES THE FLAG.

About this period some German merchants, with a view to avoiding the high import duties on the English Gold Coast, obtained a concession from the local chief, and founded factories in Anecho or Little Popo. From the death of the chief in 1883 until 1884, the disputes over the succession kept the country in a ferment. In July, of the latter year, Dr. Nachtigal, the German Consul General for West Africa, restored order by entering Little Popo and

hoisting the German flag in Bagida and Lome. In 1886 a defensive treaty was concluded between the German Imperial Commissioner Falkenthal and the paramount chief, the German standard was unfurled in Agome-Palimo in 1887, and in 1888 Falkenthal made his successful march to Salaga, which was followed by the Anglo-German treaty declaring the neutrality of Goneja and Dagomba.

The German occupation of the Togo coast was followed by the exploration of the hinterland. The large village of Adangbe was reached in 1886, the district of Agotime was visited in 1887; the north-west and north-east regions were traversed, and the station of Bismarckburg was founded in Adeleland in 1888. In 1890 Misahöhe was established as the only pass over the Togo Mountain, and in 1894 Bismarckburg was abandoned and the station was removed to Kete Kratschi on the Volta River.

The natives, in the course of these expeditions, having been "taught a sharp lesson" in order to prepare them to accept the German occupation in a properly submissive spirit, and the boundary lines between German and French and German and British territories having been settled by the agreements of 1897 and 1899, the military force was

reduced in 1900 from eleven Germans and 250 natives to seven Germans and 150 natives, and development work was speeded up. The chief post-office was established at Anecho (Little Popo), and before 1900 Lome and Anecho had been connected by telegraph, not only with each other, but also with the Gold Coast on the west and Dahomey on the east. Togoland was thus provided with two cables to Europe.

By 1909 postal facilities had extended to six stations; by 1911 the present facilities of thirteen chief offices with four sub-stations had been attained. There is, besides, a convenient telephone system, much appreciated by the native community. The fees range from "sixpence to two shillings per three minutes, according to distance. Every firm, hotel, plantation, and missionary bureau is fitted with the telephone, and the organisation of the service is perfect." With the beginning of 1913, steps were taken to erect a powerful wireless station at Kamina. Road construction was proceeded with so steadily that by 1914 there were 755 miles of roads suitable for motor traffic, and rest-houses were established. These rest-houses, under the German administration, were generally large, comfortable and invariably

clean. Only white people were allowed to occupy them, and the duty of keeping them clean devolved upon the chiefs of the neighbouring villages. In the vicinity of the est-houses were compounds for the accommodation of native travellers. These compounds frequently formed a considerable village, consisting of fifty or sixty round huts, each sufficiently commodious to shelter a native family. The native official responsible for the hygienic condition of the compound saw to it that the native occupants of the huts swept and garnished their temporary lodgings before resuming their journeys, and collected the penny per diem which was the charge for the accommodation.

The twenty-six miles of railway from Lome to Anecho was completed in 1905 ; the section Lome to Palime, close to Misahöhe, in West Togoland, was opened in its whole length of about sixty miles in January, 1907 ; and there is now a railway from Lome due north to Atakpame, 110 miles, thus giving a total length of about 200 miles of railway for the colony.

GREAT AND LITTLE POPO.

At the time of the coming of the Germans in

1884, the most important settlements were two places, called respectively, Great and Little Popo, and the term Popo—being the Portuguese word *povo*, a people—was applied to the entire district. Great Popo exported from 160,000 to 170,000 gallons of palm oil in good years, and some 3,000 tons of palm kernels. The importation of European goods are given at about 850,000 marks for Great Popo and 130,000 for Little Popo, the striking difference in the figures being accounted for by the fact that business at Little Popo was largely transacted in cash, that at Great Popo being by barter. The export of Little Popo was greater than that of its neighbour in palm oil, but in palm kernels much the same, the figures for Little Popo being approximately 250,000 gallons of oil and 2,500 tons of kernels.

Great Popo, with a population of about 3,000, finally passed to French Dahomey. It was undoubtedly a loss to Germany. Travellers describe this section of the lagoon as unusually beautiful, the numerous islands luxuriantly covered with stately palms alternately with magnificent stretches of clear blue water, constituting a panorama of "extraordinarily superb magnificence." Little Popo, with less natural beauty, undoubtedly possessed a native

community more in harmony with European ideals. Money currency obtained to a considerable extent ; but native supplies were still brought exclusively by women. Transactions were for quantities rather than small lots. The Germans had three factories there, the French two ; there were also three Sierra Leone businesses and several native concerns.

The white population consisted of four Frenchmen and five Germans, and their method of life is thus described in the *Afrika Hand-Lexikon* : " The management of the factories is mostly in the hands of Europeans, strong men of 20-25 years of age, sent out from Hamburg or Bremen under a three years' agreement. As assistants they have ' Native Clerks '—good penmen, but inaccurate accountants and not too trustworthy. Usually four clerks are employed in one factory. One acts as salesman, another as warehouseman, and the two others as buyers, chiefly employed in measuring the palm oil and kernels brought in. The factories are open from 6 in the morning to 6 at night—being closed at midday from 12 to 2. In Lome and Bagida trade is carried on in English ; at Porto Seguro in Portuguese. German is quite unknown to the natives."

PHYSICAL FEATURES.

THE three hundred mile wedge of Togo territory which runs south to north from the shore of the Gulf of Guinea to the borders of the French Soudan, may be roughly divided into three parts by imaginary lines drawn from east to west, and these divisions may be catalogued under the headings—civilised, semi-civilised and savage. South of rail-head, at Atakpame, some 120 miles from the coast, the natives are amongst the most civilised of the African negroes. They are accustomed to clothing, are comparatively industrious, and employ coined money as regular currency. The various tribes dwell on friendly terms among themselves and with the European settlers. This division of the colony contains three lines of railways and many excellent roads. North of Atakpame, about 100 miles to the Government station just beyond Sokode, is a belt of semi-civilised country, traversed the whole distance by a good government road with rest-houses at more or less regular intervals of fifteen miles. In this division the natives are either adorned with warlike habilaments, or they go naked; they invariably

carry arms, and inter-tribal frays are not unknown. Here the currency is mixed, coined money taking its place with cowries, salt, and brass rods. North of Sokode the country is inhabited by savage, hostile tribes, who have not been brought under the influence of German *kultur*. A District Commissioner, with headquarters at Mangu, on the banks of the Oti, the principal river of Northern Togo, was in control of this region, but as he had to defend his station shortly before the war against a fierce native attack, in which each side suffered heavy casualties, it is evident that his authority was strictly nominal. No made roads go north of Mangu, and the flat, barren country, which is largely inundated in the rainy season, owing to the overflow of the Oti River, is practically unexplored. The wild and warlike tribe, the Tschandjo, who swept down from the north a hundred years ago—the first mounted warriors ever seen in Togoland—settled in the south-central region, and it was in the neighbourhood of Sokodo that they gave check to Dr. Kersting and his band of free-lance adventurers. Kersting, recognising the fine fighting qualities of the Tschandjos, made an alliance with their uro, or king, and, with

the assistance of his braves, eventually brought the whole territory under German rule.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.

The irregular coastal line of Togoland consists of a lagoon sand bank of sea sand, a few metres high and some hundred metres wide. This is succeeded by an undulation of clayey soil, which in some parts is filled with swamps and in others with lagoons and streams. The lagoon zone between the sand bank and the red clay plateau begins at Lome. Further inland is a zone of heavy, clayey soil, partly covered with grass, brushwood and occasional palm groves. This plateau, which is seventy to 120 km. wide, rises gradually in terraces to a height of from 200 to 400 m., and is bounded by the steep Togo Mountain. Togo Mountain runs through the whole colony, with the "island" mountains on either side. The chief mountain in this central chain is called Fetisch Mountain, and has a different geological formation from either the westerly or Buem range, or the easterly or Agu range. Fetisch Mountain, which extends from the Volta to the source district of the Mo in the north, is a continuous mountain range. The Agu range begins east of the River Volta, and

between this range and the Fetisch chain are broad plains.

All the rivers in the colony—the Volta, with its tributaries the Oti and Kulukpene, the Monu, the Haho, the Sohio, and the Todschie—rise in the central range. The Volta is only navigable for a short distance in Togoland, but the Monu, from Togodo onwards for a distance of about 150 km., is a very valuable waterway. Almost all these rivers are interrupted in their middle courses by rapids. The Kulukpene and the Volta form the boundary between German and English territory, and the former, with its abrupt, sinuous windings, is only navigable for small vessels. The Oti, the principal stream of the eastern Salaga lowland, rises as the Pendjari in the Alakora Mountains in Dahomey, but it enters Togoland below 10°55 N. lat., and is henceforth known as the Oti. It has a breadth of from eighty to 100 m., and overflows its boundaries for several hundred metres in the low-lying country on either side. The Mo, the source of which is the Kurongo Mountains, penetrates the Tabalo Mountain land, and has a breadth of about forty m., and a depth of $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. It receives the Katscha and empties itself in the Oti. The most

important coast rivers are the Sohio and the Haho. Both rise from numerous springs in the Akpasso plateau ; both flow through the mountain region of the Agu range and eventually find their way into the great Togo lagoon. The less important rivers and brooks are affected by the rainy and dry seasons, and many which are swollen and impassable after the rains, have no place in the colony's waterways during the greater part of the year.

GEOLOGICAL FORMATION.

The geological formation in the east of the colony, where the River Monu forms the boundary with French Dahomey, consists of gneiss and granite, and the gneiss and granite of the Monu plains, which run north and south along the entire length of the border, are pierced with a few outcropping hills of hornblende, which have resisted all action of the weather. Further to the west, and over the greater part of the colony, is to be found schist and sandstone formations, with considerable quantities of quartzite on the extreme western border. This quartzite is a continuation of the ridge which begins north of Accra, in the Gold Coast, and consists of a number of parallel ranges between which stretch small isolated

plains, and attain in some places a height of 3,280 feet above sea level.

Being continuous with the gold-bearing hills of the Gold Coast, this mountain range in West Togoland might reasonably be supposed to yield gold; but such has not proved to be the case. Very similar samples of rock have been obtained to that found north of Accra, but so far they differ from the Gold Coast samples in the one essential of not containing gold. Repeated attempts to find gold-bearing quartz in Togoland, extending over about fifteen years, have not proved successful. But gold in small, if not paying, quantities has been found near the western frontier. Various other parts of the colony have been examined for gold with but little result, but there is a great deal of iron in certain districts of the interior. The best known deposits are at Banjali, near Bassari, in the Sokode district, which is considered by experts to be the best part of Togoland. The deposits here are very important, and the ore is good; but the industry cannot be profitably exploited except by extending the railway from Atakpame and improving the harbour accommodation at Lome. The iron is much used by the natives, who forge from it various tools, swords, &c., and make

crude agricultural implements. In 1911 the natives obtained 400 tons of iron ore, which was valued at £3,600. It is probable that valuable minerals exist in Togo, but not one quarter of the country has as yet been geologically surveyed.

The occurrence of one solitary patch of chalk on the Monu River, at Tokpli, about thirty miles from the coast, is a fact of great interest to geologists, and one which may also be of considerable value for the production of lime, which is often difficult to obtain in Africa except from coral rag or more rarely volcanic lava.

The prevalence of sandstone over a considerable part of the colony has permitted the erection of stone buildings. The Governor's residence at Lome is built of stone ; and more recently stone buildings were being put up at Kamina in connection with the wireless station.

FORESTRY.

The subject of forestry was carefully studied by the authorities in Togoland, who had enjoyed exceptional facilities for obtaining practical knowledge of the subject in Germany ; and Herr Metzger's monograph, compiled after four years' work in the colony .

as Forestry Superintendent, is a comprehensive and valuable document. Metzger estimates that about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the area of Togoland is virgin forest, "and certainly not more than 2 per cent." Calculating the population at one and a half million, and allowing two hectares to each native for cultivation, with share of house room and roads, he arrives at the fact that 30,000 sq. kilometres of land are in use, to which he adds another 3,000 sq. kilometres as under oil-palm cultivation. This is apparently 38 per cent. of the total area of the colony. Allowing 2 per cent. for virgin forest, it follows that 60 per cent. of the land must be unused, all high-lying and covered for the most part with knotted or gnarled trees, such as may be seen in an old orchard—in fact, savannah. Metzger describes how all this savannah results from the wasteful native process of clearing the forest for the purpose of cultivation (as explained elsewhere), and contends that if the native cannot be induced to adopt more economic methods, the virgin forest which is left is in imminent danger of complete destruction, a loss which would be disastrous to the community. Valuable timber would be lost, whilst the resulting effect on the climate would not be for the better. As an instance, he cites

Misahöhe ; there, under the protection of virgin forest, the harmattan is so modified and tempered as to be little felt, with a consequent gain in comfort and health. Very different is the state of things at, say, Nuatye, which is on the same latitude, but is quite unprotected by forest.

From some notes published in 1912 by Mr. Unwin, Conservator of Forests, Southern Nigeria, we learn that the soil at the coast, being sandy with an admixture of iron, is not favourable to forest trees and hinders their growth. Many experimental avenues of teak and mahogany in this region, more especially at Lome, have proved to be only a partial success.

At Atakpame, ninety-five miles inland from Lome, no less than 25,400 teak seedlings have been planted since 1901, and these are doing well. Similarly, all other inland districts where afforestation has been tried—as, for instance, the large area of Haha-Buloe—have given good results. Teak trees are found growing on almost every kind of soil and formation, both where the soil has good depth, as at Pfandu, or at Yendi, where it is very shallow. Teak thrives everywhere, except for small patches at

Atakpame in a swamp, and small areas at Basari on very poor sandy soil over an ironstone pan.

Mahogany is indigenous to certain forest localities inland, but it is more exacting in the matter of soil than teak. The best mahogany trees are growing at Sokode and Yendi on a rather light, well-drained soil. The Senegal variety, *Khaya senegalensis*, when planted in Togoland, shows itself most susceptible to stagnant water and bad drainage.

THE CLIMATE.

The climate of Togo cannot be described as other than bad, and the littoral is probably worse than that part of West Africa to the north of the Gulf of Guinea. On the coast it is extremely damp, but the atmosphere becomes drier and cooler in the hinterland, and is probably more healthy, although the sanitary conditions are not so good. The general order of the seasons in the course of the year is as follows: The months from December to March are exceedingly dry, and in the north are practically rainless. The heat is excessive in spite of frequent sea winds in the south district. In the centre and north-east, dry and hot currents preponderate. In March and April, overcast conditions prevail, with

strong tornadoes, and the temperature falls. On the coast, July to September are months of indescribable dryness, and the rains of October usually bring no depressions. Central Togo has its maximum of rain in September and October, and in the three succeeding months the vegetation withers under the intense heat, the soil is dried up, and fine dust is whirled about by the east winds. Dust, burnt grass and ash mingle with the vapour, the whole air becomes turbid and opaque, and through it the sun appears as a pale disc. Aledjo, situated on a plateau nearly 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, overlooking wide expanses of mountain and plain, is probably destined to be the health resort for Europeans in the colony. Miss Gehrts says that so great is the force of contrast that, after living in the steaming cauldron of the lowlands, the air of Aledjo seems as pure and bracing as that of the Austrian Tyrol, although she admits that "if a European could be transported straight from such a climate to that which prevails in a dry season at Aledjo, he would probably laugh to scorn its claim to be entitled the Switzerland of Togo."

By reclaiming swamps, building good houses, and segregating the European residents as much as pos-

sible, the German administrators have done excellent work in Lome, but in spite of all measures taken by the authorities, the colony is not healthy for Europeans. There are plenty of mosquitoes along the coast, and many parts of the interior are swarmed with them. Blackwater-fever is not uncommon, and among the other serious diseases of the country are small-pox, leprosy, dysentery, sleeping-sickness, and malaria, the latter being probably the most prevalent disease. In Anecho, which is the most important town on the littoral next to Lome, new streets have been made, and a certain number of native houses situated near to European quarters have been demolished. It is nevertheless an unhealthy town, situated on a sandy, narrow strip of sea-beach, with a shallow, muddy lagoon on the other side. Nearly all the European houses are sandwiched in among the native huts, and mosquitoes abound in the town. It used to be the capital of the country, until a disease, which was probably yellow fever, broke out one year and killed most of the Europeans in the place. Efforts have been made to prevent the spread of leprosy, but the segregation of lepers and suspected cases has not been altogether a success. In fact, the disease is

spreading in the country. In the Tschamba and Sansuon countries of the Sokode district, and in the Bogo country in the Mangu district, leper stations have been built, but the medical authorities experience considerable difficulty in inducing the natives to enter and, when there, remain in the stations.

WILD ANIMALS.

Elephants may still be encountered in the desolate steppes as well as in the primeval forests of Central Togo, but their number is rapidly decreasing, and the export of ivory has become of quite subordinate importance. Buffaloes and various species of antelopes also inhabit the steppes, and crocodiles are found in the larger rivers and the lagoons. Leopards and hyænas infest the whole of the country, and apes are numerous, but the lion is only to be met with in North Togo.

COMMERCIAL AND GENERAL PROGRESS.

THE commercial progress of the colony and the position of its trade can be studied in the following brief summary of the most recent Consular Report of October, 1913 :—

In 1912 the budget was £151,792, made up as follows :—

					£
Tax	32,257
Customs	76,400
Other revenues	13,505
Pier and railway receipts				..	27,625
Miscellaneous	2,005

The following table shows the value of the imports and exports of Togo during the years 1911-12, together with the increase and decrease.

<i>Articles.</i>	IMPORTS.		<i>Increase or Decrease.</i>	
	1911. £	1912. £		£
Machinery	1,420	4,897	+	3,477
Wagons and cycles ..	4,416	7,866	+	3,450
Guns	6,987	7,944	+	957
Gunpowder	6,301	7,195	+	894
Gold coins	1,625	145	—	1,480
Silver coins	66,005	40,494	—	25,511
Rice	1,500	6,989	+	5,489
Empty bags and rope	3,828	8,440	+	4,612
Casks and furniture	8,873	12,967	+	4,094
Sugar, syrups and confectioneries ..	5,504	7,137	+	1,633

EXPORTS.

<i>Articles.</i>			1911.	1912.	<i>Increase or Decrease.</i>	
			£	£		
Maize	8,711	11,554	+	2,843
Cocoa	8,700	12,151	+	3,451
Palm kernels	178,932	168,978	—	9,954
Palm oil	84,410	70,642	—	13,768
Cotton	27,701	25,744	—	1,957
Rubber	41,614	48,786	+	7,172
Ivory	1,797	2,085	+	288
Silver coins	67,226	96,638	+	29,412
Cassada	4,452	7,408	+	2,956
Copra	3,198	3,063	—	135
Cattle	15,561	25,290	+	9,729
Sheep and goats	5,165	5,185	+	20

NOTE.—It will be observed that the export of palm oil and kernels decreased in the year 1912. That was due to the drought and the ravages caused by small-pox which attacked the natives in the southern districts during the year.

The following table shows the imports and exports of Togo for the years 1909-12 :—

			<i>Imports.</i>		<i>Exports.</i>
			£		£
1909	561,764	..	368,602
1910	573,306	..	361,106
1911	481,001	..	465,677
1912	571,391	..	497,945

The information published in the last British Consular Report was written about a year before the declaration of hostilities, but while the conditions in Togoland have undergone a drastic change

since that date, the Consul's remarks on "Openings for British Trade" may be commended to all who are proposing to do business with that colony. The British goods that have hitherto been despatched to Togoland have been of superior quality, and consequently more expensive than those sent from Germany, with the result that the Teuton merchants have practically cornered the markets. In his insistence upon the fact that articles intended for sale to the natives must be cheap and showy, the Consul writes: "What does the average West African native in his present stage of development care for superior articles? He neither appreciates nor understands them. For example, take the case of sewing-machines. The British sewing-machine is, as a rule, of good and lasting quality, and a fair price has to be paid for it. On the other hand, the German machines, although they appear to be well turned out and look very splendid in the stores, are not of such good workmanship as the British, at least those sent to West Africa are not. Consequently the price is lower, and nine times out of ten it is the price that appeals to the native mind.

"A man wishing to purchase a sewing-machine considers first the price, and seeing a German article

in a German store as good in appearance as the British, but considerably cheaper, immediately selects the former. But this does not only apply to sewing-machines, it is applicable to many other articles as well. The Germans, however, are unable to compete with us in cotton goods, which are purchased in considerable quantities by the natives."

The principal imports consist of cotton goods, hardware, tobacco, haberdashery, kerosene oil, tinned provisions, biscuits, lamps, candles, salt, jams, tinware, bicycles, guns, gunpowder, copper, wine, fish, agricultural implements, enamelware, glassware, clocks, watches, perfumes, powder, patent medicines, cheap furniture, soaps, mineral-waters, sweet syrups, flour, baking-powder, basketware, carpets, wire rope, clothing, cotton yarn, dried fish, empty barrels, empty kernel bags, hats, caps, &c. Of these the British Consul considers that the best openings for British trade are in the following articles: Iron goods, cotton goods, enamelware, earthenware, haberdashery, sewing-machines, copper and brassware, cutlery, rice, biscuits, whisky and wines, soap, salt, cigarettes, lamps, lanterns, lead bars, iron sheets, coal-tar, timber, and pomade.

RAILWAYS AND ROADS.

The principal railway in the colony is the 120-mile line which runs north from Lome to Atakpame ; a second goes from Lome, a distance of eighty miles, to Palime, near the hill station of Misahöhe ; while a third runs from Lome thirty miles along the coast to the former capital of Little Popo. Surveys have been made for the further extension of the Lome-Atakpame railway, which was eventually to have been connected with a place called Banjeli, where iron ore exists in large quantities. It was also the intention of the Government to commence the construction of another railway of sixty kms. for the purpose of tapping the rich oil country in the Anecho country. On the completion of this line Togoland, with its limited hinterland and its small coast line, would possess four excellent railways, three of which are already working and paying.

Lome, the chief town and only port of entry in the country, is one of the most charming little towns in West Africa. Picturesquely surrounded by palm groves, it is neat and clean, and beautifully laid out, and the buildings are a credit to the West Coast. The pier at Lome was partly destroyed by the sea

in May, 1911, and it remained unworkable for the greater part of the year. As this interfered with the discharging and landing of cargo, and practically cut off Togoland from the rest of the world, commerce was so seriously affected that the best and newest German hotel had to close, and up to October of 1914 it had not been re-opened. The pier, at a cost of £20,000, was repaired in a manner that made it stronger than before, but a projected longer pier, capable of discharging up to 1,000 tons per day, had not been commenced when war was declared.

THE ROADS AND THE ROAD BUILDERS.

A network of roads throughout the hinterland, which for cheapness and excellence of construction are, in the experience of the British Consul-General, unsurpassed anywhere in West Africa, act as feeders to the railway, and the whole of this development work was started only a little over a quarter of a century ago, with a working capital of £4,000. But if we examine this economy of rail and road construction, we find that it is largely effected at the expense of the protected native. German colonial rule in Africa is cast in a sterner mould than British, and while the Government charges the natives only

six marks a year for its protection, it contrives to get its full return for the blessing it bestows. The six shilling head-tax sounds an insignificant impost, but it becomes a more important figure when the native is unable to pay it, and, in consequence, has to put in twelve working days on the Government roads, railways, buildings, &c. Even this tax upon the native labourer would not be prohibitive if the work was to his hand, but in many cases the men of the outlying tribes have to make a long journey from their houses to the field of their operations and back again—a double journey, which they take in company with their wives and families. While the father of the family is working out his tax, he is given Government rations, but on the long journeys he has to provide food for himself and his *entourage*, and the outing, in addition to the expense, not infrequently involves considerable hardship and privation.

“No wonder,” writes Miss Gehrts in “A Camera Actress in the Wilds of Togoland,” “he resents the hated impost, and tries to evade it whenever possible ; for the native is constitutionally incapable of looking ahead, and cannot be made to see that the work he is called upon to do is for his own benefit

as much as, and even in a sense more so, than for that of his white masters." Moreover, the Government officials have a habit of inspecting the native quarters, and of punishing the existence of dirt of any kind with a fine of twenty marks. The fine in the great majority of cases is taken out in road labour, and the roads in consequence are kept in cheap and excellent repair. The fact that the European in German territory is entitled to give a native twenty-five lashes, while in British dominions the striking of a native involves a white man in a fine of £5, is another explanation of Mrs. Mary Gaunt's fancy that in some of the villages of the German hinterland "the people are not as light-heartedly happy as in English territory."

THE FAMOUS WIRELESS STATION.

It may be safely conjectured that when the surprising news was first received in England that a British and French force had entered the country and reduced the extent of the German Colonial Empire by some thirty odd thousand square miles of territory, Togoland was no more than a name to the general public, and few people could even guess the reason for the haste which the Allies displayed

in seizing this unimportant possession. But the English and French Governments knew that a few miles north of Atakpame, at a place called Kamina, the Germans had just completed the installation of the greatest wireless station in the world outside Europe. Less than four years ago the little African bush village of Kamina was suddenly thrown into a whirl of commotion by the arrival of a corps of German surveyors and engineers, followed by some thousands of natives from every corner of the colony. This conglomeration of negroes, with their wives and children, was pressed into the Government service under the provisions of the Native Tax Act, and was set to work clearing the bush, building a light railway from railhead at Atakpame, cutting roads, erecting workshops and houses, and handling the hundreds of tons of material that were sent forward from the coast. The installation, which comprises a power-house, receiving and despatching rooms, stone houses for the officials, and nine steel towers varying in height from 250 to 400 feet, was pressed forward at top speed. Miss Gehrts, who was in Kamina in November, 1913, on her way up country, and returned there six months later, declares that the progress which had been made during her absence

filled her with amazement. The stone houses were finished, and the great steel towers and the immense power station were only awaiting the installation of the dynamos and turbine which would bring Kamina in connection with Berlin, 3,450 miles distant. Even in April, 1914, messages could be received if not transmitted, and a typewritten broadsheet containing the news of Europe made its daily appearance on the breakfast table.

“ I need hardly say,” Miss Gehrts adds, “ that it is not for such comparatively trivial purposes as these that this powerful installation has been erected in the heart of the wilderness. The wireless station at Kamina is intended to be the chief receiving and distributing centre for the whole of Africa ; so far as Germany is concerned. It will communicate with the similar but smaller wireless station in the Cameroons, and also with that at Windhoek, in German South-West Africa, as well as with Tabora, in German East Africa. Furthermore, it will in course of time constitute one of the principal links in the chain of wireless stations with which Germany, like Britain, is seeking to girdle the globe, connecting her East and West African possessions with German New Guinea, with Samoa, and with the

German Protectorate at Kiao-Chau, in the Chinese province of Shantung."

In June, 1914, the final installations were completed, and it is quite possible that the announcement of the declaration of war was the last important message which the German operator at Kamina received from Berlin before the station passed into the possession of the Allies.

A LAND OF NATIVE CULTIVATION.

TOGOLAND, with the exception of a few Europeans in the trading stations, is essentially the land of the natives and of native cultivation, and the people certainly display both knowledge and energy in agricultural pursuits. But like most negro races, their methods are wasteful and destructive. The native system of agriculture throughout the country, and Africa generally, is to uproot or burn trees and bushes and to turn this "cleared" land into temporary plantations. As, in the course of a few years, the soil of these plantations becomes exhausted, they move to another area and repeat their clearing process. In this manner millions of square miles of primeval forest have been destroyed in the course of centuries, and stunted trees and bushes have replaced the great tropical growths. It is supposed that the climate of West Africa was at one time damper than now, and that the forests that sprang up in the destroyed regions were retarded in growth by lack of water.

There are many fertile areas in Togoland similar

to those in German East Africa, where cultivation could be carried on by European methods and modern machinery, but the soil generally is mostly poor and only adaptable for native development. The native contrives to obtain good results where the European fails, for the working expenses of the former are reduced to a minimum, and the negro's whole family, including the women, are employed in the fields. The presence of the dreaded tsetse fly in many parts renders impossible the introduction of draft animals for agricultural purposes. There are, however, certain districts which are free from tsetse, and here the plough could be used when once the negroes had learned how to handle it, and the extent of land under cultivation could be more than doubled. The fact that the country is capable of greater development, and that the soil, at present only sufficiently cultivated to provide for immediate local wants, can be made to yield much richer and more bountiful harvests, is beginning to be realised by the natives. Even the inhabitants in the far interior are taking much more interest in commercial affairs than formerly, while the tribes nearer the coast, and those living in the vicinity of the railway, are becoming more prosperous and better clad. Thanks to the

opening up of the colony by railways and roads, the small native traders of the coast are penetrating into the hinterland, and are to be found at all the principal stopping places along the lines. In addition to the native traders, Syrians are now also trading in the interior. These people, who are found everywhere along the littoral, are rapidly becoming serious competitors with the native traders, and they are apparently doing well, as they continue to increase in numbers.

EXPERIMENTAL AGRICULTURE.

Dr. Walter Busse, of the Imperial German Colonial Office, has told us that wherever, in the German African colonies, "climate, soil and condition of settlement do not admit of plantation culture, and a native population capable of production is present, the Government will, as a matter of course, encourage native agriculture as much as possible, and by this means create an improved economic position." The savannah climate which prevails over Togoland prescribes certain natural rules for plant cultivation in the colony, and sets certain definite limits to plantation culture under European management. As a matter of fact there

is no important European planting industry in Togoland, but the land which, for the most part, is thickly settled, possesses an active, intelligent population with an inclination towards agricultural work. The German authorities, as was their custom, deprecated the agricultural methods of the natives, and combated them with "a continuous and well-regulated system of instruction for the natives in order to make production more effective both for local consumption and for export." This work was undertaken by the organisers of the Agricultural Institute, at Nuatjä, and of the three cotton stations of the colony, assisted by a staff of fifteen officers of various grades, five assistants and district agriculturists, and a number of subordinate instructors.

In their endeavour to educate the native to a higher scale of productivity, the Germans established an Agricultural College in Togoland for native students, who, having completed their studies, either remained as pupil teachers or were sent into the villages to give lectures and practical instruction in farming.

At the beginning of 1911 there were ninety-nine pupils in the college, nineteen of whom returned to their villages during the year. At the end of the

year thirteen new pupils joined the college. A number of special experiments were made with cotton, maize, rice, sweet potatoes (African), beans, ground-nuts, and ground-beans. These included twenty varieties of cotton, nine varieties of maize, four kinds of sweet potatoes, and twenty-three varieties of beans. Some of these experiments were successful, but not all. A certain number of cattle were kept at the college for breeding, ploughing and other purposes, and an experimental importation of a number of Berkshire hogs is reported to have given satisfaction.

At the end of the course a certain number of pupils were started in the various districts in settlements of their own, and received practical assistance from the Government. The utility of the course and the good work which was done is undeniable. At the same time progress was slow and practical results somewhat discouraging. As a matter of fact, the German as an educator of an alien or native race is a failure. He lacks understanding of and sympathy with his pupils, and he fails to make himself understood by them. He demands that they shall learn the German tongue, embrace German methods and show their devotion to German ideals.

The result is that the native, as scholar, tax-payer and devotee, was a profound disappointment to his German mentor, who did not appear to appreciate the fact that he in his turn is an even greater enigma to the native. That the negro distinguishes between Europeans, and has his preferences among them, was not so disturbing to Teuton intelligence as the uniformly evident inclination of the negro to prefer any other European to the German.

THE OIL-PALM CULTIVATION.

THE agricultural development of the colony received a severe set-back in 1911-12, in consequence of the almost unprecedented climatic conditions, and many crops were ruined by the drought—a timely reminder to the new rulers of Togoland that however flourishing the finances and commerce of the colony may be in the future, the revenue may, at any time, be unfavourably influenced by years of drought. Palm oil and kernels, which are found in some places in forests and in others in patches nearly throughout the country, form the principal products, and the Government encouraged their cultivation by the offer of monetary rewards for careful attention to the trees and land. At present there are no means of dealing with the thousands of fruit-bearing trees that exist, and not a tenth of the oil and kernels produced in the country is collected.

The oil-palm in the old days was the glorious heritage of the native, who found a ready sale for such oil as his women-folk were able to extract by a slow and laborious process. It is likely that the

native believed that so long as he retained the tree and the fruit, his time-honoured oil business would never be taken from him, but the great and growing demand for oil has beaten him, and he is fast losing the trade because he can no longer make the quantity that the market requires. Palm oil is now requisitioned for a hundred-and-one new uses. It is no longer the monopoly of the soap-maker or the chandler. Palm oil deodorised by hydrogen is needed for the "nut butters" of the vegetarian; makers of nitro-glycerine explosives derive their glycerine constituents more and more from palm oil; whilst the exploiters of novelties in metal polishes ransack the ship's hold for leakages from the palm-oil cask. Oil must be had in increasing quantity; machinery speeds up the production; yet still the cry is for more oil, until the European himself attempts to become owner of thousands of trees, eagerly and not too scrupulously encroaching on lands that once were considered native, in the vain hope of finding a speedier road to prosperity.

THE PALM TREE AND ITS PRODUCTS.

The profitable development of this industry depends on the demand for palm oil and the use

which can be made of the residues. That the supply of palm kernels themselves should decline is unthinkable. The steady increase in their growth in all parts of the West African Coast is conclusive evidence of their almost limitless possibilities. Moreover, the statistics clearly show the extensive nature of the demand. Great Britain and Germany are no longer the only purchasers ; South Africa has entered the market, as well as Holland and France, though their lots are comparatively small, and could not in any way effect the profitable exploitation of kernel-crushing on a large scale.

In a paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute, entitled "The War: British and German Trade in Nigeria," Mr. R. E. Dennett, of the Forest Department, Nigeria, made it abundantly evident that Germany had been farming the commerce of the Protectorates to the detriment of the Britisher. He showed from statistics that Germany's export trade to Nigeria greatly exceeded ours, while of the Nigerian produce which left the country, Germany in 1913 took nearly all the copra, half the cocoa, more than two-thirds of the palm kernels, one-eighth of the palm oil, half the hides, one-third of the mahogany, more than half the ground-nuts, over a

third of the shea nuts, and all the palm kernel cake.

On the subject of the palm tree and its products, Mr. Dennett is both interesting and instructive, and in view of its inevitable increase in importance as a British industry, the following extracts from his paper may be usefully reproduced here.

“ People who have little or no knowledge of the palm tree (*Elæis guineensis*) confuse the palm fruit with the palm kernel. The palm kernel of commerce is the seed of the palm tree. This is surrounded by a hard shell, and it is then called the palm nut. This shell is in its turn covered by an oily fibrous matter, and is then known as the palm fruit. If we take this fruit and cut it into two parts, we can see these three parts of the fruit more distinctly; first the outer yellow covering or the fibrous pericarp, from which the palm oil of commerce is extracted; then the shell, and finally the kernel, from which the white palm kernel oil is extracted.

“The composition of this fruit is as follows :—

Pericarp Oil	18	per cent.
Fibre and Moisture	12	„
Shell and Disk	58	„
Kernel	12	„
<hr/>				
Total	100	„

“ The uses of the palm oil tree are various. It yields the palm oil and kernels of commerce. It gives the native a drink he is very fond of, called palm wine, which, when fermented, gives our cooks yeast for bread-making. The shells of the nuts are used by blacksmiths as fuel, as they give off great heat. At the present time there are three methods of making palm oil: (*a*) from the fresh fruit, (*b*) from partially fermented fruit, and (*c*) from well fermented fruit.

THE NATIVE AS CULTIVATOR.

“ Bunches of fruit having been severed from the parent tree, are sliced and hammered by natives, using long poles, until the fruit becomes detached from the bunch. The fresh fruit is either prepared at once into what is called soft oil, or allowed to ferment, or partially ferment, and made into hard oil. The procedure followed in making either of these kinds of oil is much the same. The fruit is placed either into canoes or clay troughs, water is poured over them, and then, by treading or beating, the fibrous matter containing the oil is separated from the nuts. The nuts are then taken out and placed in the sun to dry, while the fibrous matter, by further

beating or treading, is made to yield the oil which floats to the surface of the water. This oil is ladled out into pots and boiled, and then allowed to rest, so that all dirt or sediment falls to the bottom of the pot. This clean oil, soft or hard, is the palm oil of commerce. This oil is taken in calabashes or tins to the traders' factory, which, generally speaking, is near to a river or a railway, and there put into casks and sent to the nearest port for shipment to Europe.

“ There are, practically speaking, two kinds of palm oil exported from the West Coast, i.e., hard and soft, but soft oil is of two qualities—Lagos and ordinary soft oil. As a rule, Lagos and soft oil is worth £3 to £4 more than hard oil, the reason being that there is about 8 per cent. more glycerine in the soft than in the hard. The percentage of glycerine varies in inverse proportion with the acidity.

“ In the olden days one of the chief occupations of slaves was that of cracking palm nuts; now this work is left to boys and women. After the nuts have been dried in the sun, they are heaped up under little sheds to protect them from the rain. In places where rocks are plentiful the nuts are taken there and cracked on them by a stone held in the hand of the cracker. In other places the nuts are put on a block

of wood resting on the ground between the cracker's legs and struck with a piece of iron held in the cracker's right hand. In this way one worker will crack from 15 lbs. to 25 lbs. of kernels per day. The kernels are then packed in different kinds of baskets and taken to markets near rivers, where they are bought by native middlemen. Competition is very keen, and so these middlemen are tempted to adulterate the kernels by adding shells to them or by soaking them in water for two or three days. Finally, they are taken in canoes down rivers or by rail to the European traders and sold by measurement at so much a bushel. . . . Think of it! 241,000 tons of palm kernels shipped to Hamburg in 1913, and nearly every nut containing one kernel is cracked by hand."

THE FUTURE OF PALM OIL AND KERNEL INDUSTRY.

Although the palm kernel industry has not attained important dimensions in Togoland, there is no reason why it should not form one of the staple products of the colony, or why the whole of the trade in palm kernels should not be transferred from Germany to this country. Hitherto the quarter of a million tons of palm kernels—valued at over £4,000,000—exported annually from British West

Africa has gone to Germany, where crushing-mills and manufacturing plants have been established, while considerable quantities of high-priced kernel oil, in manufactured or unmanufactured form, have been exported from Germany to Great Britain. About 50 per cent. of the produce of the crushed palm kernels is marketed in the form of oil, and the balance is made up into palm kernel cake, practically the whole of which is consumed in Germany, where it commands a good price and is in great demand, especially among dairy farmers.

This profitable German industry has now been suspended owing to the war, which has rendered it necessary for planters to find a new market for their produce, and the opportunity seems propitious for an endeavour to establish it in Great Britain upon a substantial scale. With a view to arousing interest in the subject in commercial and agricultural circles, Sir Owen Phillipps, K.C.M.G., Chairman of the West African section of the London Chamber of Commerce, has issued a timely pamphlet in which the present position of the trade is described and its potentialities are indicated. The Anglicisation of the industry, in addition to promoting Imperial commercial intercourse, and securing increased industrial employ-

ment in the United Kingdom, would furnish British farmers—who are complaining of the enhanced prices of present foods—with a new supply of a relatively cheap and excellent feeding material.

The profitable exploitation of this crushing industry depends upon the capacity of the British market to absorb a larger supply of palm kernel oil and upon the possibility of inducing British farmers to adopt the use of palm kernel cake. There are at present two mills, both at Liverpool, for dealing with palm kernels, capable together of crushing annually about 70,000 tons, leaving a balance unprovided for of at least 180,000 tons. To cope with this additional quantity several of the great milling companies of Liverpool, London, Hull, &c., have already made and are making alterations in their machinery in order to crush palm kernels, so that in the near future much greater quantities will be dealt with. A new mill on the Thames, at Erith, is also being erected, which, when completed after the war, will be capable of crushing a very large quantity.

PALM KERNEL CAKE FOOD.

In order to ascertain whether British farmers would be prepared to make a larger use of palm

kernel cake, Sir Owen Phillipps placed himself in communication with the leading agricultural authorities in all parts of the country—principals of agricultural colleges, experimental stations, &c., and these gentlemen have taken up the matter with the greatest enthusiasm. They are practically unanimous in asserting that the fact of large quantities of palm kernel cake being available at a price comparing favourably with that of other similar foods (now becoming more expensive than formerly) has only to be brought to the notice of farmers to ensure a greatly increased demand; in fact, that farmers are looking out for a new and comparatively cheap feeding material. Many of the principals and professors of the colleges referred to in various parts of the country have undertaken an elaborate series of comparative experimental feeding tests with palm kernel and other cakes, so as to demonstrate the merits of the former. When these are completed the results will be made widely known to the agricultural community.

In an article published in the *Field* on "Palm Kernel Cake," Mr. F. J. Lloyd, F.I.C., points out that a really good cake, made from this product, is now available in this country. The nutrients in

palm kernel cake are quite exceptionally digestible, and one German authority says that, "owing to its pleasant taste, its great digestibility, and the way in which cattle thrive on it, no cake fetches so high a price." It increases the yield of milk, improves the quality as regards butter fat, and is said to impart a good colour to the butter, so that it is especially valuable for winter feeding. Though mainly used in Germany for dairy cattle, Professor Lloyd adds that it has also been given with satisfactory results to steers, sheep, and pigs.

PALM KERNEL STATISTICS.

The *Bulletin* of the Imperial Institute contains an article calling attention to the magnitude of the trade in palm kernels, and discussing its commercial aspect. The following table shows the quantities and values from each of the chief producing countries in West Africa in 1912 :—

	<i>Quantities.</i>		<i>Values.</i>	
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	£	£
British Possessions :				
Gambia	445		6,518	
Gold Coast ..	14,629		205,365	
Nigeria	184,624		2,797,411	
Sierra Leone ..	50,751		793,178	
	<hr/>	250,449	<hr/>	3,802,472
				E

		<i>Quantities.</i>		<i>Values.</i>	
French Possessions :		<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	£	£
Dahomey	..	36,708		535,937	
Gaboon	..	354		4,671	
Guinea	..	5,054		41,079	
Ivory Coast	..	6,692		70,710	
Senegal	..	1,736		28,221	
			50,544		680,618
Belgian Congo	..	—		—	110,835
German Possessions :					
Kamerun	..	15,742		220,300	
Togoland	..	11,456		168,978	
			27,198		389,278
Totals	..		328,191		£4,983,203

This article also gives the average value of the kernels, which in Hamburg ranges from £18 2s. to £19 2s. per ton (June, 1914), and in Liverpool from £16 7s. 6d. to £18 18s. 9d. per ton.

Palm kernel oil is used for the same purposes as cocoa-nut oil, viz., the manufacture of soap and candles and the preparation of various edible fats, such as margarine, cooking fats, vegetable "butters," and chocolate fats. By suitable treatment it can be separated into a liquid portion (olein) and a hard white fat (palm kernel stearin), and in this way the consistence of the material can be varied for the preparation of different edible products. These edible palm kernel oil products are prepared on a very large scale in Germany and elsewhere, and are

largely imported into this country. With palm kernels at £16 to £18 per ton, the value of palm kernel oil in the United Kingdom is from £36 5s. to £36 15s. per ton, with Ceylon cocoa-nut oil at £40 per ton.

It is added that British oil-seed crushers who undertook to work them would find no difficulty in getting a market for the oil among soap-makers and makers of edible fats. Although the article points out that some difficulty might be experienced in finding a market quickly in the United Kingdom for the palm kernel cake, because English farmers do not readily take up feeding stuffs which are new to them, it will be gathered from what has already been said that, thanks to the initiative of Sir Owen Phillipps, this difficulty is likely to be overcome, and the opportunity is a particularly good one now that other feeding stuffs are becoming more expensive, as that is a point which will have great influence. It is not a new feeding material, but all the evidence points simply to the fact that it has only to become better known and available on a large scale to result in mutual benefits to the farmer, the miller, the manufacturer, and the West African colonies.

OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.

NO efforts were spared by the German Government to develop cotton cultivation, and great hopes were entertained by the administration of Togo becoming a great cotton-producing country, but the results did not quite realise expectations. Cotton is indigenous to Togoland, and has been spun by the natives from time out of mind. The old cotton industry of the negroes was ruined by the introduction of calicoes from Europe, and it is now difficult to obtain good native-woven cotton either in Togoland or the Cameroons. The cotton plantations in Lome, Anecho and Atakpame are doing fairly well, but in the Misahöhe district the natives naturally are more concerned with palm oil and kernels, for which they obtain better prices with less trouble. In fact, cotton cultivation is only popular where there are less oil and kernel ; and in these areas the Government expected the natives to plant and make large farms for themselves. In the Sokode district in the north, owing to the nature of the soil, cotton proved a failure, and there appears to be little prospect of its succeeding there.

Good results are expected to be obtained from cocoa, which is doing very well indeed in the neighbouring colony of the Gold Coast, whence thousands of pounds' worth are exported to Europe. There seems to be no reason, therefore, why it should not be an equal success in Togo, for the soil and climate are both favourable for its cultivation. A great number of plantations already exist. Cocoa does best in the western part of Togo, where perhaps the soil is more suitable for its growth than in the east. From Ho to Misahöhe there are a number of farms, and in the Buem country large plantations are now owned by native farmers.

RUBBER AND COPRA.

Up to now practically no plantation rubber has been grown in Togoland, almost the whole of the rubber exported being the product of the wild plants. Native middlemen buy the rubber from the tappers and sell it to the European export firms. It is known from experience that in the years when prices rule high, the middlemen are extremely active and the collectors reveal corresponding energy; market prices influencing not only the value but also the quantity of the export. Most of the rubber comes

from the Atakpame district, but although Togo rubber is of good quality, the colony is not a great rubber-producing country when compared with the results obtained in other countries in West Africa. A number of natives were carefully instructed in planting and tapping trees, and, in fact, everything was done to prevent the unscientific and wasteful collection of rubber, which has caused so much damage to the trees in different parts of West Africa.

Special attention has been paid to the cultivation of cocoa-nuts in the colony, and every inducement was given to the natives to further increase the output. Although an enormous number of trees have been planted along the littoral, the Government did not encourage Europeans to cultivate cocoa-nuts. The trees of course grow best in the moist, sandy soil on or near the coast line, and as the Togo littoral is extremely limited, and is mostly in the hands of native farmers, there would not be very much room for Europeans even if they took the matter up seriously and made extensive plantations. From Lome to Anecho there are thousands of small plantations, and apart from the picturesque scenery they form they are of considerable value as a commercial asset. About 8,000 nuts produced one ton

of dry copra. The value of a ton of copra averages £20. One of the disadvantages in the cultivation of this product, however, is the length of time it takes to grow, the average being from ten to fifteen years before a tree bears fruit. Very little expenditure is necessary while the tree is growing, there being, as a rule, little or no bush to be cleared away on the sandy soil. The European planters have made the successful experiment of manuring the trees, and good results have been obtained. The Government endeavoured to induce the natives to do the same. Owing to the drought in 1912 the cocoa-nut harvest for that year was a failure, the farmers losing heavily. The lack of staple food caused by the drought during the first half of that year compelled the natives to buy up the nuts in large quantities for food.

The export of ivory is steadily going down. Indeed, within a few years there will be scarcely any trade in it at all. Most of the ivory exported now comes from the Gold Coast, it being attracted to the colony on account of the good prices paid by the European firms in Lome. Unfortunately, there is no ordinance to protect the elephants from indiscriminate slaughter, the result being that even the young ones are killed by the natives.

PALM WINE, IRON AND SALT.

A considerable trade is done in palm wine, which is produced in Central and North Togo from the oil palm as well as from the raphia palm, and is sold in large quantities to the caravans which traverse the arid districts of South Togo. Millet beer is also manufactured in Central and North Togo. Soap is made in South Togo from banana ash and palm oil, and in the north district from schi butter. The native-made leather from the skins of wild and domestic animals is a crude material, the good leather, employed in the manufacture of saddles, bridles, shoes, satchels, and hats, is obtained from the Haussa countries or made by the Haussas in Togoland. Cotton is made up in yarns and fabrics. Spinning is a work committed to the women ; the weaving is done by men, chiefly by Mohammedans located in North Togo. The art of dyeing is followed all over Togoland, red dye being produced from cam wood and black with charcoal, while the blue, which, on account of its durability, is regarded by the Ewe people as the symbol of eternity, is obtained by the use of a preparation of native indigo.

The native iron is produced in considerable

quantities from red iron ore in Benjali. The furnaces, which are $3\frac{1}{2}$ m. high, are stoked with charcoal, and after burning for five or six days, they yield a dirty but weldable iron from 25 to 30 kg. in weight. This iron, without being submitted to any process of cleansing, is used by the smith, whose method among the Ewe people is a family secret that may not be divulged to strangers.

Salt is an important trade in Togoland, both coast and desert salt being in strong demand. The desert salt comes from a district extending from Timbuctoo in West Sudan to Kabure land. The coast salt is obtainable from the soil of the lagoons at Adda, at the mouth of the Volta, where the precipitation of the sea water is scraped from the lagoon soil and cleansed by washing, and at Great Popo, where the sea water is evaporated by artificial means. These two spots are situated at the mouths of navigable rivers, by means of which the salt can be forwarded far into the interior. So far back as 1860, Atakpame was a market for Adda salt, which was forwarded from that place on pack animals to Kpedji and Tschaudji. Monu salt, which is packed in cone-shaped wicker baskets, in parcels of twenty kilo-

grammes in weight, is forwarded by carriers to Sagada, Kete and Salaga.

FOODS FOR LOCAL CONSUMPTION.

Cassada is much cultivated by the aborigines for making various articles of food and for local trade purposes. It is grown practically all over the Protectorate, and is exported to the neighbouring colonies of the Gold Coast and Dahomey. Rice is grown and consumed by the natives locally, but is not exported. The African rice is excellent as a food, being rich and nutritious in quality. The rice trade is capable of enormous expansion, and even if the African rice is not popular in Europe, there is a large market for it in West Africa alone. Maize has suffered from bad planting, but model plantations have been established in Anecho, Lome and other districts, and the Government, which did much to forward its cultivation and export, were confident that it would grow into a valuable asset for the country.

The areas producing nutritious plants may be divided into the following five zones :—

(1) The coast district, which is productive of yams, maize, bananas, taro, manioc, sugar cane, and, above all, the oil palm. (2) The South Fetisch Moun-

tains and the Buem region as far as Adeleland, where maize, yam, and oil palms, bananas, rice, and Kebu peas flourish. (3) In the third zone, which comprises Central Togo, yams are the chief article of food, and maize begins to get scarce. (4) In North, Central and South Togo, durra becomes the principal article of food, but oil palms, yams, maize, and ground-nuts are obtainable. (5) In North Togo, beans and ground-nuts are plentiful. The harvest is generally stored in granaries and in houses which are constructed of wood, wicker-work and clay, the wood and wicker granaries being present everywhere in South Togo.

THE PEOPLE OF TOGOLAND.

THE people of Togoland appear to be divided into four zones or groups, but the lines of demarcation between them are less clearly defined than they were before the advent of Europeans into the country. The Mandigos came from the west and south-west, the Mossi and Gurma from the north, the Borgu and Dahome from the east, and, in the south, the two great groups are composed of the Ewe, whose location east of the Volta extends to the neighbourhood of Lagos, and the Ashanti, who inhabit the west of the Volta and Oti and fall into several divisions. The Ewe language, which has been carefully studied, contains about 400 words, and is split up into numerous dialects. It is a very flexible and expressive language, and like all Sudan tongues, the signification of the words is expressed by the tone and pitch of the voice. Ewe is the commercial language of the country. The Dahome or Fong division of the Ewe group are found in Togo territory only in the provinces of Tado and the Atakpame. The Ashantis of the country are mostly found in the province of Apai,

on the left bank of the Volta, but they occupy a number of scattered villages on the rand of the Togo Mountains in the direction of Bo. The Guang people, of whom the Kratschi are a branch, are situated between the Oti and Volta, and to the north of them are the several tribes of the Ngbangje, whose language is an admixture of the Tschi, Ewe and Adele. In the north zone reside the Sudanese, who came from further north ; and the Mossi group, which extends as far as the northern end of the Gambagu plateau. The Mampulugu is a part of the Mossi group, which is neighboured in the Jendi district by the Dagbamba. To the east of the Dagbamba are races known as the Tim and the Gjamba, whose language is not unlike that of the Tschi and the Ewe. In addition to these greater groups there are many less important races, including the Risu, in North-West Togo ; the Moab, on the Gambagu plateau ; the Akposso, on the Akposso plateau ; and north-west and still further north of the Akposso, the Kebu and the Adele.

FORTIFIED NATIVE VILLAGES.

The Tschokossi savages in the extreme north of Togoland used to inhabit villages which can only be described as cunningly-constructed native fortresses,

in which every hut was a fort, and although the necessity for these defensive precautions has ceased to exist, and even the Tschokossi has ceased to build them, a few scattered villages are still to be met with. The outer fortification is a palisade, five feet high, encircling the village, which is oval in shape. In the rim between the outer and the inner palisades of the same height, the huts are arranged at a distance of about two yards apart. Enclosed within this circlet of huts is a compound, common to the village. As the outer wall is protected by thorn bushes, the entrance to the rim in which the huts are situated is made from the compound, and this is approached through an outer doorway leading into the biggest hut in the village. This hut, which is the common-room of the community, is divided into two parts ; in the one the women grind the corn and in the other the men gossip and take their ease. At night the men's department forms a stable for the sheep and goats. A door in the further wall of this communal-hut gives access to a courtyard, which is divided from an inner court by a wall which bisects the compound. From the inner court access is gained to the village by clambering over the wall. The circlet of huts is of the same height as the sur-

rounding walls, and each is entered by a hole placed about two feet from the ground, and made just large enough to allow an adult native to squeeze through. But having pierced the outer wall of the hut, one is confronted with an inner wall, and in the narrow passage left between the two walls one makes a half circle of the building before arriving at a door which leads into the interior of the hut. The space between the huts in the rim between the double palisades is the communal chicken-run of the village. If this place was not impregnable against the assaults of men armed with bows and arrows, it would, at least, be impossible to rush it by a surprise visit. Even if the thorn bushes were surmounted and the rim was entered by the outer wall, the chickens would make sufficient commotion to warn the villagers of the presence of intruders, and by the time the assailants had squeezed themselves through the holes in the hut walls and crept round the inner passage of the dwelling, the occupants would be ready to give them a warm reception. These ingenious and elaborate fortifications, the construction of which is said to have originated with the Gourma people, no longer form a part of Tschokossi defensive architecture, and although a few such villages are still inhabited, they

are fast falling into ruin and being abandoned by the inhabitants.

ARTS, CRAFTS AND CUSTOMS.

Regarding the people of Togoland as a whole, they display the characteristics of the negro race with all the faults and merits of their kind, but like most of the inhabitants of West Sudan and Upper Guinea, they are industrious and persevering, and have extraordinary aptitude in acquiring civilisation. The Ewe and the natives of the Joruba and Atakpame are peacefully inclined and good tempered, and in them the commercial spirit is well developed, while such mountain races as the Akposso, Kebu, Atjuti, and Adele are powerful, warlike, and distrustful of strangers.

Among the arts practised by the Togo negroes, music and dancing play a leading part. The songs, which consist of solos and choruses, sung to the accompaniment of guitars, horns, flutes, and drums, are most varied among the Ewe and Ashanti people. The subjects of the songs range from philosophical views of life and death, to love, hunting and war, and in most cases are the expression of the personal sentiments of the singer. Dancing is accompanied

by much clapping of the hands, the arms and legs of the dancers being hung with rattles. Many of the solo and round-dances are a mere demonstration of high spirits, but others have a certain significance in which war and religion have a part.

Gambling, with cowrie shells for dice, is very popular. The universal game, which is played on a board, is called Dara by the Haussa tribes and Adi by the Ewe, and is quite harmless.

The rudiments of painting and the plastic arts are revealed in the figures, painted in red, black, white and yellow colours, which adorn the walls of some of the houses. Sculpture is limited to tone reliefs on the walls, in which the representations of crocodiles are most frequently encountered. Tattooing is popular, and is practised with skill. Many native methods for measuring time and counting are employed, the Ewe making use of sticks and matches and of grains of sand. The hours of the day are regulated by the position of the sun ; the time estimated to cover a certain distance is calculated upon the time required for a meal. The journey from one place to another is not recorded in miles but in meals. The week is generally composed of six days and the month of four weeks, and the twelve months of the

year are arranged in accordance with the changes of the moon. Among the Ewe, the year begins in September with the sowing of the yams.

In the rearing of Togo children, the habit of obedience is conspicuous by its absence, but traits of filial affection are not wanting, and the old are held in peculiar esteem. The young girls are instructed in household duties by their mothers, and the boys not only learn field work and handicrafts, but also the tribal and family customs and traditions, the ramification of relationship as well as certain principles of justice. Among the Ewe people it was formerly the practice to betroth a girl at her birth, and the bridegroom elect wooed his bride by cultivating the field for his prospective father-in-law and gathering in the harvest for him. If the girl—arrived at marriageable age—disapproves of her parents' selection in a husband for her, the unfortunate swain was bound by rule to take his life. In the coastal district brides are sought with cash in hand, but child-betrothal is still the custom with the Bassari, and bride-stealing is not unknown among the Adele. Weddings are celebrated with dancing and revels. As a tribe the Ewe is monogamous, but the well-to-do among them have two or three wives. The marriage tie can be dis-

solved at the instigation of either the man or the woman, but the children belong always to the husband, and even when a separated woman marries again, her children of the second marriage become the property of her first husband.

THE NATIVE AS LITIGANT.

For the negro the law has a peculiar fascination, and a lawsuit is the joy and aim of his life. The chief of the tribe is the supreme judge, and the sessions take place in the market under the shadow of the trees. Each party to the suit pays stated fees, and briefs the most loquacious available man of the tribe to plead his cause. Lawsuits between single individuals are settled without much difficulty, but complications arise in cases between different tribes, when it is sometimes a matter of might *versus* right, when the injured parties have redressed their wrongs by seizing members of another tribe and seek to justify their strategy in the eyes of the judge. A decided feeling for justice generally prevails, but when the suit is brought against a guileless stranger, the most methodical illegalities are pursued with glaring unscrupulousness. In certain cases in which the judge lacks the courage to pronounce judgment

against a powerful party, an appeal is made to the fetish priest, who is thus often in a position to favour a litigant, and the weaker party finds it anything but easy to obtain judgment.

Stealing is infrequent among the tribes, and is very severely dealt with. Murder is punishable by death, the murderer being despatched by the same means or weapons with which the crime was committed ; but again, if the criminal is a person of importance, he evades the extreme penalty by payment of a sum of money. Poisoning and witchcraft are punished without mercy, but vendetta was, until recently, universally practised.

The right of succession is somewhat complicated. Among the Ewe, the inheritor is the eldest son of the eldest sister of the deceased, and the landed property and wives of the dead man are divided among the other sons. The eldest son enjoys various privileges. He alone can cut down the oil palms for the preparation of the palm wine, and the proceeds of the sale of the palm wine belong to him. Illness is attributable either to witchcraft or the influence of evil spirits, and the natives seek to exorcise it by medicines or the offices of the priests. After death among the Ewe people, the corpse is decorated, and a festival

takes place, during which dancing, drinking and drum-beating is indulged in, lasting from eight to twenty-one days. The corpse is wrapped in matting and buried at a depth of two feet. Clothes and cowrie shells are buried at the same time, in order that the corpse may obtain food and pay the ferryman who will convey him across the river to the kingdom of the dead. As the time of the departure to this last haven appears to be uncertain, food and palm wine are annually placed beside the graves for the use of the dead. Widows wear a mourning garment of dark blue cloth, and are compelled by custom to confine themselves to their homes for a period of from six weeks to six months following the death of their husbands.

THE HEALTH OF THE NATIVES.

Speaking of the Togo natives generally, they may be said to take more care of their health than the average African negro. Most of the tribes bathe freely and treat their skins with a preparation of fat, while, in common with all negro races, they take especial pride in their teeth. Yet infant mortality is very great, and although in individual cases the age of seventy or eighty years is reached, the average

length of life is not more than fifty years. Malaria is the chief sickness everywhere, even in the mountains. In the rainy season, and at the transition of the dry season, it is at its worst, the dry months being more or less immune from the scourge. Dysentery is an epidemic, and in Tapa, Buem and Gbele, a large number of persons die annually from the sleeping sickness. Yellow fever is not unknown, leprosy claims many victims, and skin diseases, especially eczema and ringworm, are common. The otherwise healthy mountain districts are visited by rheumatism and tuberculosis, and goitre is prevalent throughout the country.

Small-pox, which used to be a scourge in the country, is yielding before the advance of European preventive measures. Although at first the natives were suspicious about the treatment, as soon as the results became known they used to come in from the outlying districts and ask to be vaccinated. The German Government found it useful to enlist the co-operation of the paramount chiefs, who made a law by which a certain number of the natives under their jurisdiction had to present themselves at the station for vaccination. There were 8,288 natives vaccinated in the Lome town district in 1912. In

the Lome district itself 12,326 vaccinations took place, of which 4,742 were unsuccessful, the percentage of successful vaccinations being—Lome town, 55½ per cent. ; Lome district, 29 per cent. In the Bassari and Sokode divisions of the Sokode district, where small-pox was prevalent, 26,134 vaccinations took place in the year 1912. Throughout Togo vaccination has been carried on with energy, 95 per cent. being successful. From 1903-10, 123,276 vaccinations took place ; but it is stated that not much reliance can be placed upon the work carried out by some of the native vaccinators. After vaccination immunity exists for about four years. The epidemic of 1911, said to be one of the worst that has occurred in the country, accounted for some 4,500 deaths.

The most popular native handicraft in Togoland is pottery, which is manufactured everywhere by the women, who are all experts in the use of the potter's wheel. Indeed, no other native industry has been so little influenced by intercourse with Europeans. The material employed in straw plaiting and basket making are grass and reeds and the inner bark of the palms, especially of the *Pandanus*, *Raphia* and *Borassus*, but the bark of the *Sanservia* and *Ananas*

are also used. Straw-plaiting, which is made up into roofing, fencing, pouches, satchels, hats, and baskets, is a small local industry, but the celebrated, gaily-patterned mats of Tschaudjo form an article of commerce. Rope-work is principally confined to Agotime; wood-carving on spoons, combs, vessels, and furniture, is practised in the Volta region; ivory-carving is carried on in South Togo at Kpandu, Gbele, Gbi, and Muatja, and great drum and fetish idols are produced in Ahinkru.

NATIVE EDUCATION.

In order to ascertain the work done by Europeans, the Government and the Missionary Societies in schools for the natives of their various African possessions, the German Colonial Institute in 1911 sent out to the colonies over 2,000 printed *questionnaires*, with a request to the authorities to return answers according to the state of the schools on June 1st in that year. From the information filled in and returned, Herr Missions-Inspector Schlunk, of Hamburg, was able to publish a voluminous report on the subject, and the state of affairs thus revealed is illustrative of the best and worst features of the Teutonic colonising system. The facts in themselves

concerning the educational work accomplished in the way of providing the natives with schools and teachers are remarkable. In Togoland, the Wesleyan Missionary Society of London opened the first school in 1850. Since 1884, the North German Missionary Society, of Bremen, and the Roman Catholic Mission, of Steyl, have established elementary and higher schools, seminaries and industrial or artisan schools in the country. In 1891 the Government entered the educational arena, and although the number of their schools and teachers was limited as compared with those conducted by the missions, the efforts of the authorities in Togo and in Cameroon were directed to bringing all education under Government control.

In 1911 the Government had two elementary schools with two European and eight native teachers, and 337 pupils; the North German Mission had 141 elementary schools with seven European and 176 native teachers, and 5,414 pupils; and the Roman Catholic Mission had 166 elementary schools, twenty-three European and 200 native teachers, and 7,087 pupils. Altogether there were in the Colony of Togoland, 315 elementary schools, with eighteen male and fourteen female European teachers, 384 male and fifteen female native teachers, and 13,347

pupils ; five higher schools, with three male European and four male native teachers, and 181 pupils ; four schools for practical work, with twelve male and two female European teachers, four male and one female native teachers, and 214 pupils. This gives a total of 324 schools, with forty-nine European and 408 native teachers, and 13,742 pupils, of whom 2,279 were girls.

In Cameroon the first educational work among the natives was begun by the London Baptist Mission in 1845, and in 1885, the year in which the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America entered the field, the London Baptists resigned their organisation to the Missions Gesellschaft, of Basel. Two years later the first Government School was opened in Duala, and in the following four years the Apostolic Vicariat Kamerun, of Limburg on the Lahn, and the German Baptists, of Steglitz, established schools in the colony. In Cameroon, as in Togo, the Government were behind the missions in the number of schools and scholars, having, in 1911, only eight elementary schools, as against the nine of the American Presbyterians, thirty-eight of the German Baptists, eighty-six of the Roman Catholic, and 275 of the Basel

Mission. Altogether there were in the colony 499 elementary schools, with forty-two European and 611 native teachers, and 32,056 pupils ; twenty-one higher schools, with thirty-three European and thirty native teachers, and 1,802 pupils ; eleven industrial schools, with twenty-two European and five native teachers, and 259 pupils ; or a total of 531 schools, with ninety-seven European and 646 native teachers, and 34,117 pupils. Of the teachers 3·3 per cent. and of the pupils 8·1 per cent. were females.

THE SCHOOL COURSE.

In both Togo and Cameroon, the course of the elementary schools began with an infant class and lasted four or five years, the objects of the schools in both colonies having been to provide Christian instruction to natives and to train pupils for the higher schools with a view to their entering the service of Europeans. Instruction in German began in the first year, and in the third year pupils were required to read and write German fluently in both characters. The curriculum for the last year included the history of the German Empire since the Franco-German War of 1870-71, the history of the

German Emperors since January 18th, 1871, the Geography of Germany, and the singing of German patriotic songs.

In the higher schools, the object of the teachers was to "impart such knowledge as is required in the service of Europeans," and all instruction was given in the German language. The schools for practical work trained girls for domestic work, laundry work and farming, while boys received instruction in carpentering, cabinet-making, smith's work, boot-making and tailoring, printing and book-binding. At the completion of their course, all pupils were obliged to remain in the service of the Government for two or more years. In both Togoland and Cameroon, the Government had a school of agriculture, where pupils were instructed in farming, especially cotton-growing and the use of the plough, and at some of the mission schools in the latter colony the pupils were trained in brick-making and cocoa-planting, and the work connected with water-supply and bridge-making.

In both colonies the schools generally were open on five or six days a week, with from twenty to thirty-five hours' instruction per week, according to the grade of the several schools. The average length

of holidays for Mission and Government schools was from two to three months per annum. Unfortunately, no statement of revenue or expenditure is included in the case of Togoland beyond the fact that the Government made a yearly grant of £750, distributed among the various schools for the encouragement of German language-study. In Cameroon, in 1910, the Basel Mission spent £5,386 on teachers' salaries, and the Roman Catholics £1,626. The cost of the Government schools in that year was £1,963. Generally no school fees were paid except in some of the higher schools in Togo, where pupils paid 50s. per annum, and at Garna, in Cameroon, the Government pupils paid 30s. per annum in kind.

THE RESULTS OF GERMAN METHODS.

TWO languages were used in all the schools of Togoland, the Ewe and German. Ewe is the language of the more enterprising tribes on the coast, but as many of the natives do not speak Ewe, it was necessary for them to be taught before instruction proper could be commenced. Although no force was employed to make children attend school, the attendance and discipline of the pupils appear to have given rise to no complaints. But it is stated that nearly all the pupils came to school in the hope that they would eventually find employment with Europeans ; that, at the end of their school course, the pupils considered themselves superior to manual labour, and that scarcely any of them returned to the family farms. The demands from the Government, the missions and traders for native workers is said to have exceeded the supply of trained pupils, but several complaints were made that this tendency, together with the universal instruction in German, threatened to become a calamity to the native tribes.

Miss Gehrts, who visited one of the German Government schools in Togoland, writes :—

“ What impressed me most during my stay in Sokode was the splendidly-appointed Government school, of which Mr. Kuepers is principal. He is assisted by several native teachers . . . and it is really wonderful to see . . . the rapid progress.”

Then follows a comment on the well-known falling off at puberty, and an account of her own experience in questioning the scholars. She proceeds :—

“ These children are picked children. Only a certain number are taken from each village, and not above a certain number. At present there is accommodation for about one hundred ; but new buildings are being erected ; then the classes will be very largely augmented. The children are taken entire charge of by the Government during the time they are at school. A small daily sum is allowed each child for food and lodging, this being handed over *pro rata* to certain approved native women living in the village, who undertake in return to board and sleep so many of them. Each child is also given by the Government a little blue smock ; and books,

slates, pencils, and so forth are of course provided free."

In Cameroon a Government Proclamation of April 25th, 1910, made school attendance obligatory for all native children, instruction in German from the first class was made law, and the punishment for a child who left school before completing the whole course was fixed at a fine of £2 10s. or a flogging. Although children generally were anxious to attend school in order to qualify for service with Europeans, truantry appears to have become more popular after obligatory attendance was introduced, and the native police were kept busy in bringing back absentees. School children, who were distinguished by the wearing of brass-buttons and cockades, showed a tendency to become denationalised: few of them returned to the family farms when they completed their school course, which had the effect of causing them to lose touch with their own tribe and families.

It is impossible, after reading Herr Missions-Inspector Schlunk's report, to refuse admiration to the thoroughness of the German system of instituting these inquiries, or to the zeal with which the Germans lay themselves out to Teutonise their native subjects.

Their organising ability, as revealed in their methods of imparting instruction to the natives and preparing their minds for the reception of *kultur*, is amazing, but as Hanns Vischer shows in his analysis of this informative publication, contributed to the *Journal of the African Society*, their method has its disadvantages. "Little love and scarcely any respect for the native," he comments, "are to be found among the various reports. No mention is ever made of the natives' national feeling. Natives are taught German history and the names of the German Emperors, and they can sing German patriotic songs. From every colony we hear that the boys who have been to school seldom or never return to their own surroundings, and although this is regretted, as being detrimental to the interests of a peasant community, no mention is made of the breaking-up of the native family and the inevitable harm which must follow. The importance of practical instruction is everywhere recommended to teach the native to work, but no mention is made of the natives' own industry and love for work which might be developed."

GERMANY AS COLONISER.

In the application of her colonising methods

there is overwhelming evidence of the fact (which Lord Haldane so generously deplored without convincing his fellow-countrymen of the necessity of sharing his sentiments on the subject) that Germany, having come late into the colonial field, endeavoured, by strict organisation, pedantic self-consciousness, honest effort and entire lack of understanding of the task she had set herself, to bring her over-seas Empire into line with Greater Britain in the shortest possible time. She attempted a short cut to world-power, while she could only bring to the work the experience and methods of a Grand Duchy. She strove to make good Germans of African natives without giving them opportunity or excuse to appreciate the virtues of German administration, or the time for them to develop a desire to become part and parcel of the fledgling empire. In a word, they set themselves to secure the Germanisation of the subject races by force, instead of inspiring them with a desire to be worthy of the honour that was thrust upon them. It has taken England three centuries of patient toil and example to inoculate native India with the enthusiastic loyalty which has expressed itself in the contributions of the tens of thousands of fighting men and millions of money which they have

thrown into the Empire's struggle; while, at the end of thirty years of Teutonic domination, the natives of Togoland threw off their allegiance to the Fatherland in the first moment of hostilities, and welcomed the invasion of the French and English forces with tumultuous enthusiasm. "The surrenders of Togoland," says an editorial of the *Gold Coast Leader*, of September 12th, 1914, "has given rise to outbursts of joy and thankfulness among natives throughout the colony. In the Central and Western Provinces women, dressed in white, their wrists and necks encircled with white beads, and their necks and chests rubbed with white chalk, for days on end paraded the streets singing and chanting songs of praise and thankfulness for the victory of our soldiers. The terrible doings of Germans in Togoland . . . have become matters of common knowledge . . . and instinctively our people have felt that the loss of Togoland by the Germans is a distinct gain to the cause of the progress of natives and their good government throughout British West Africa."

THE FUTURE OF TOGOLAND.

Dr. Paul Rohrbach, formerly Imperial Commissioner for German South-West Africa, and an official

of much discernment, was not greatly impressed with Togoland. Employing the qualified method of commendation which was once so popular in Western Australia, he can say no more for a good thing than that it is "not too bad." Its coastal trade is "hampered by the extreme difficulty of landing"; the rainfall is insufficient to force a tropical growth; oil palms are only fairly numerous; the soil is mostly poor; and the land is essentially that of the native and of native cultivation. To sum up he says that: "Togoland, from the first, has obtained the reputation of being our model colony, because it succeeded at an early date in paying its way, and no doubt it was spared sets-back by the wisdom of its administrators. In spite of all this we must not deceive ourselves and expect that a small colony that is not as richly endowed by nature as Kamerun and East Africa will make such important strides as those countries. It is therefore comprehensible that, should an opportunity arise, Togoland might be well handed over to a foreign power in exchange for a more satisfactory African possession—one nearer to our other Colonies."

The colony has now been handed over, but to which foreign power is not yet determined, and in

spite of some deprecatory feeling upon the subject, its future is already being discussed. "No discussion can be entertained here," writes Mr. W. A. Crabtree in an article on "Togoland" in the *Journal of the African Society*, "as to the future administration, how and by whom it shall be carried on, even though the native community at the coast has been taking full advantage of the present occasion to ventilate grievances under German rule. These effulgences have been appearing in the *Gold Coast Leader* for some time; but no advantage would accrue from any attempt to comment upon them. Indeed, from a cursory examination of this local paper week by week, it is perfectly obvious that there are grievances also in the English dependencies. Under these circumstances it is impossible to form an impartial opinion; we can only trust that any real case of hardship or injustice may soon be rectified by the proper authorities."

"The problems of the future for the development of these industries," Mr. Crabtree says in conclusion, "and a few minor ones which have not been detailed for reason of space, consist in the extension of railways across or through the mountain ridges they have now reached, and also in apportioning the work

of cultivation between native ownership and European. Considerable native interests are involved, if the general trend of paragraphs in the *Gold Coast Leader* are in any way reliable, so that this latter question of native or European management may prove to be the most immediately pressing question of the two."





A. F. CALVERT'S MAP OF AFRICA.



VIEW OF LOME.

PLATE 4.



THE MARKET PLACE. LOME, SOUTH TOGO.



LANDING IN THE OLD STYLE.



LANDING STORES ON THE BRIDGE, LOME.

PLATE 7.



LOME RAILWAY STATION.

PLATE 8.



MARKET STREET, LOME.



THE DESTROYED LANDING STAGE, LOME.



THE PIER AT LOME.

PLATE 11.



SALT MARKET, LOME.

PLATE 12.



SPIRITS MARKET, LOME.



HAMBURG STREET, LOME.



HAMBURG STREET, LOME.

PLATE 15.



EVANGELIC CHURCH AT LOME.

PLATE 16.



GOVERNMENT DISTRICT OFFICE, LOME.



GOVERNOR'S HOUSE AT LOME.



POLICE TROOPS AT LOME.



FACTORY YARD, SOUTH TOGO.



MARKET IN THE LOME DISTRICT. PROVISIONS ARE SOLD—COOKED FOOD, DRIED FISH, CHEAP EUROPEAN JAMS, DRESS MATERIALS, AND HARDWARE.

PLATE 21.



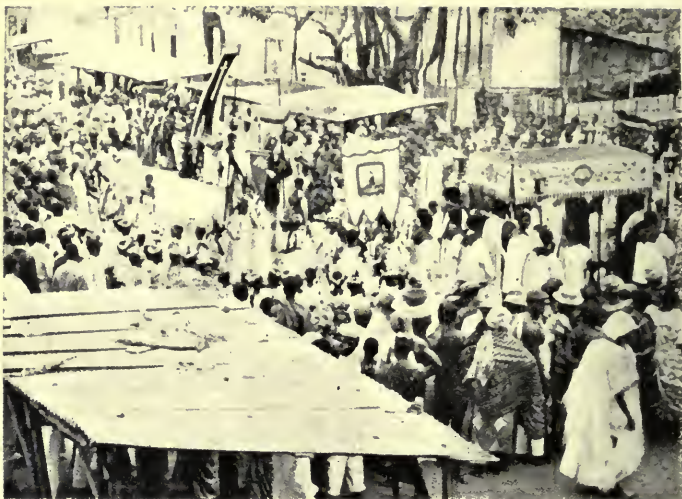
TOGO CHILDREN.

PLATE 22.



A TOGO BEAUTY, WITH SUNDAY HAIR-DRESS.

PLATE 23.



CORPUS CHRISTI PROCESSION, LOME.

PLATE 24.



A STREET IN ANECHO, SOUTH TOGO.



ON THE SHORE AT ANECHO.

PLATE 26.



TRAIN ON THE COAST RAILWAY, NEAR ANECHO.
PLATE 27.



COAST RAILWAY, NEAR ANECHO.



DISTRICT OFFICE, ANECHO-SEBE.



THE NIGHTINGALE HOSPITAL, ANECHO.

PLATE 30.



NATIVE CANOES ON THE SHORE OF THE LAGOON, NEAR ANECHO.

PLATE 31.



PALAVAR HOUSE, AT EGGE, NEAR ANECHO.



MARKET AT ASSAHUN, SOUTH TOGO.

PLATE 33.



THE FORMER CUSTOM HOUSE AT ANECHO.

PLATE 34.



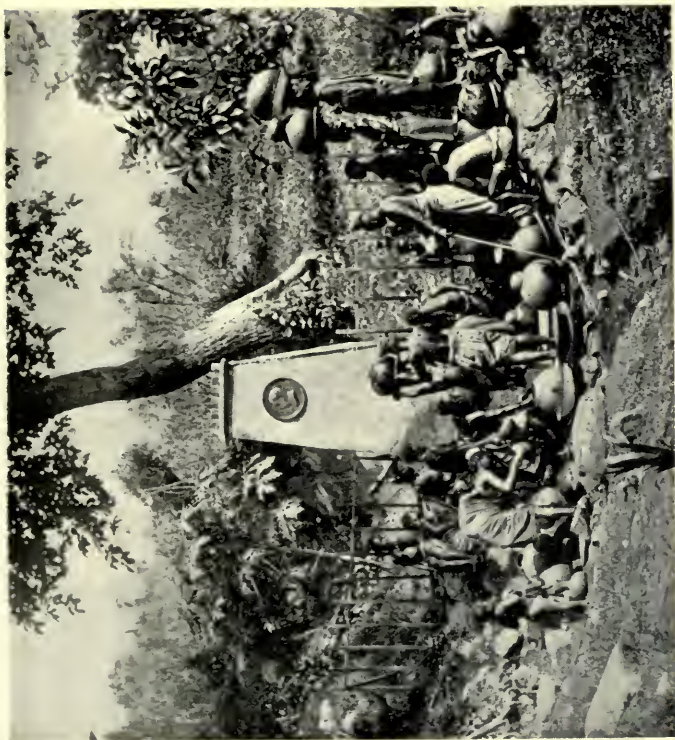
NATIVE MARKET, SOUTH TOGO.



VIEW OF ATAKPAME, SOUTH TOGO.



MARKET DAY, ATAKPAME.



BISMARCK SPRING, ATAKPAME.

PLATE 38.



MARKET PLACE AT ATAKPAME.

PLATE 39.



MARKET PLACE, ATAKPAME.



GOVERNMENT OFFICES, ATAKPAME.



MARKET PLACE AT ATAKPAME.

PLATE 42.



CONSTRUCTING THE RAILWAY TO ATAKPAME.

PLATE 43.



CONSTRUCTION OF THE HINTERLAND RAILWAY TO ATAKPAME.



THE KING OF HO WITH HIS SUITE.



"THE QUEEN OF WOMEN," SISAGBE, OF ATAKPAME.

PLATE 46.



HIGHLAND BEHIND THE AGU.

PLATE 47.



BUSH PLAIN IN SOUTH TOGO, BETWEEN PALIME AND ATAKPAME.



PLOUGHING A FIELD IN NUATJA.



COCOA TREES, TWO YEARS OLD, UNDER OIL PALMS.
PLANTATION AT TAFIE.

PLATE 50.



VILLAGE OF PEWA, PLATEAU OF SOUTH TOGO.

PLATE 51.



VILLAGE OF GLEI, ATAKPAME DISTRICT.



NOEPE STATION, SOUTH TOGO (LOME-PALIME RAILWAY).



AVHEGAME, AT THE FOOT OF THE AGU MOUNTAIN, SOUTH TOGO.



GORGE OF THE KAME, IN THE SOUTHERN TOGO MOUNTAINS.



VIEW OF KPANDU, SOUTH TOGO.

PLATE 56.

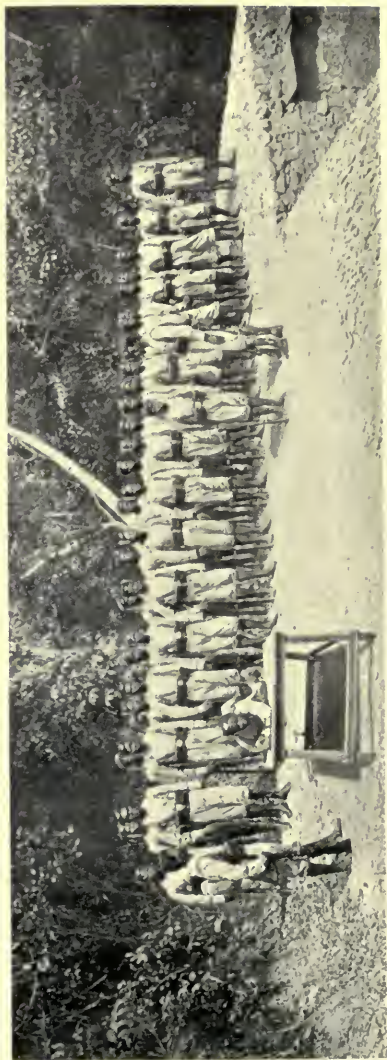


A NATIVE OF BASSARI, NORTH TOGO.

PLATE 57.



A NATIVE OF EWE.



NATIVE SOLDIERS AT THE SHOOTING RANGE, MISA HEIGHTS.



PALIME. TERMINUS OF THE RAILWAY TO THE INTERIOR.

PLATE 60.



MISA HEIGHT STREET, PALIME.

PLATE 61.



VILLAGE OF TONGHE, MISA HEIGHTS.

PLATE 62.



VILLAGE IN PALIME.



POLICE STATION AND COURT HOUSE AT MISA HEIGHT.



DISTRICT OFFICE, MISA HEIGHT.



A FACTORY AT PALIME.



A VILLAGE IN MIDDLE TOGO.



DANCING WOMEN, TAMBERMA.



A VILLAGE IN THE DISTRICT OF KABURE.



OPEN SPACE IN THE FOREST, AGOME MOUNTAINS.



BUSH PLAIN, WITH BORASSU PALMS.



THE LOWER VOLTA RIVER.



ON THE KUMONGU RIVER.



VIEW OF BINBILA, CENTRAL TOGO.



VILLAGE AT EWE.



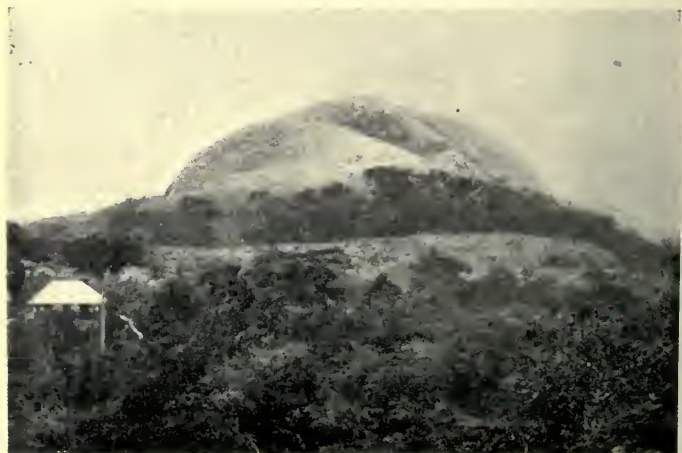
A PALM WINE FACTORY IN THE PLAIN, NEAR AMUSUKOOHE,
SOUTH TOGO.

PLATE 76.



ON THE ANGAE RIVER.

PLATE 77.



THE GEMMI, NEAR AMADSCHWE, SO-CALLED ISLAND MOUNTAIN,
ORIGINATED FROM THE GRADUAL DECOMPOSITION OF THE ROCK.



KOLA BUSHES, FIVE YEARS OLD. PLANTATION AT TAFIE.

PLATE 79.



ON THE PLAIN.



MARKET PLACE AT KETE, KRATSCHI.



A CARAVAN ON THE MARCH.



COLLECTING ROAD DUES FROM A HAUSA CARAVAN.

PLATE 83.



TRAVELLING IN A HAMMOCK.

PLATE 84.



PRIMITIVE NATIVE BRIDGE.



"ORCHARD PLAIN," WITH SCHI BUTTER TREES.

PLATE 86.



LOSSO WOMEN MAKING MILLET BEER.



GRINDING MILLET GRAIN.



NATIVE POTTER'S WORKSHOP, AMCLAME.

PLATE 89.



MISSION SISTER, WITH NATIVE CHILDREN.

PLATE 90.



NATIVE WOMEN OF AKPOFFO.



THE OTI RIVER, NEAR TSCHOPOWA, NORTH TOGO.



VIEW OF THE COUNTRY ROUND THE FETISCH MOUNTAINS.



A CHIEF IN HIS VILLAGE, NEAR DAKO, NORTH TOGO.



NATIVES OF DIFALE.



NATIVES OF TAMBERMA.

PLATE 96.



BUSH PLAIN IN NORTH TOGO.

PLATE 97.



BUSH PLAIN IN NORTH TOGO.



STATION AT BESSARI.



GOVERNMENT STATION BUILDING AT BASSARI.

PLATE 100.



NATIVES AT A TRADING STATION.

PLATE 101.



MARKET PLACE, DAKO.



GOVERNMENT OFFICE AT BASSARI.



STATION AT SOKODE.

PLATE 104.



NATIVES OF FULBE, NORTH TOGO.

PLATE 105.



HORSE OF NORTH TOGO.



NATIVE CHIEF AND HIS GALADIMA IN THE DAKO DISTRICT,
NORTH TOGO.

PLATE 107.



CLAY BOX HOUSES, MIDDLE TOGO.

PLATE 108.



PLATE 109.

TAMBERMA CITADEL.



SSOLA CITADEL.



DORF CITADEL IN NORTH TOGO.



AT TAMBERMA CITADEL.



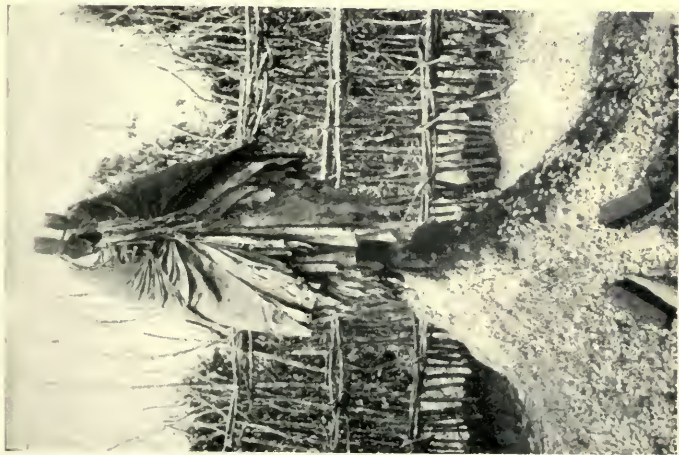
MOSQUE AT BESSARI.



MOSQUE AT SANSANE MANGU, THE NORTHERNMOST GOVERNMENT
STATION IN TOGO.

THIS WAS SPECIALLY BUILT AS A FORT BY A NATIVE TRIBE.

PLATE 114.



RAG FETISH.
EMPTY BRANDY BOTTLES, COWRIES, AND
MAIZE LIE BEFORE IT AS OFFERINGS.

PLATE 115.



MUSICIANS OF ADI.



AFRICAN DRUMS. THE PEOPLE IN TOGO USE
THESE TO TRANSMIT NEWS TO OTHER VILLAGES.



MANUFACTURING NATIVE MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.



HOUSE, WITH GABLED ROOF, IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.
PLATE 119.



SPIRITUAL DIGNITARIES.



OVENS USED BY THE NATIVES FOR SMELTING IRON ORE AT BANGJELI, NORTH TOGO.



IRON MARKET AT BASSARI. THE IRON IS NOT PURE, BUT IS MALLEABLE.
IT IS USED FOR MAKING HOES AND WEAPONS.

PLATE 122.



COURT OF THE KING OF BANGJELI, IRON SMELTER.
THE ORES DUG AND SMELTED BY THE NATIVES CONTAIN
ABOUT 50 PER CENT. OF IRON.



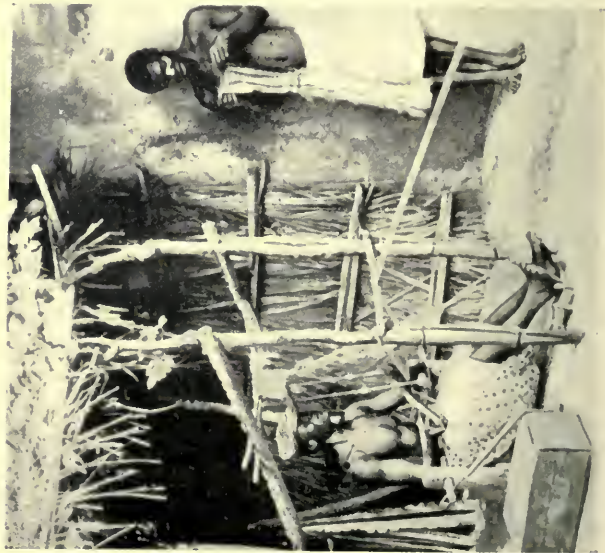
A NATIVE WEAVER IN TOGO.

PLATE 125.



NET MAKER AT PORTO SERGON.

PLATE 124.



NATIVE WEAVERS.

PLATE 126.



IVORY TURNER,

PLATE 127.



POTTERY WORKER,



FETISH NUTS.



FETISCHES.



POTS AND JARS MADE BY THE NATIVES AT KPENDU.



CHAINED PRISONERS MAKING ROADS.



WOMEN AND CHILDREN BREAKING PALM NUTS WITH STONES AND COLLECTING THE KERNELS. THE KERNELS ARE PRESSED TO PRODUCE OIL, WHICH IS USED IN THE MANUFACTURE OF MARGARINE.



COCOANUT TREES IN SEASON, KPEME PLANTATION.

PLATE 134.



WEIGHING COTTON BROUGHT IN BY THE NATIVES AT SOKODE,
NORTH TOGO.



CRUSHING YAMS.

PLATE 136.



NATIVE POLICE TROOPS STARTING ON A MARCH.



CUT MAIZE FIELD.



CUTTING THE GREEN LEAVES FROM THE STALKS AT
MAIZE PLANTATION.



MAIZE STACK.



WOOL TREES.



COTTON PLANTS, YAMS, ETC., PESSI, MIDDLE TOGO.



COTTON SELLERS FROM BOGU AT SOKODE, NORTH TOGO.



CARTING THE COTTON BALES TO THE RAILWAY.

PLATE 144.



THE GIN HOUSE AND COTTON PRESS.

PLATE 145.



WORKS FOR EXTRACTING THE COTTON SEED.



RIPE COTTON FIELD.



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BY ALBERT F. CALVERT.

EXTRACTS FROM PRESS NOTICES.

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By ALBERT F. CALVERT.

EXTRACTS FROM PRESS NOTICES.

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" The book is a veritable mine of information."—*Sussex Daily News*.

" May be recommended to those who desire a readable account of the history of these territories, of their peoples, and their commercial possibilities."—*Liverpool Post*.

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